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**Expatriate Managers Adjustment and Its Impact on Subordinates
Reactions: A Cross Cultural Leadership Study of Kenya and Ethiopia**

**Alexander Juma Ochumbo
Doctor of Philosophy**

**Aston University
July 2008**

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ABSTRACT

Research on culture, leadership and adjustment shows that societal culture influences leadership in such a way that it can impact on expatriate managers' effectiveness and adjustment in a new culture. In previous research, cultural background, personality, motives or behaviour of expatriate managers and their followers' reactions to them have been investigated in Europe, America and Asia. However, little attention has been paid on research on expatriate managers in African cultures especially in Eastern Africa. The present study represents an attempt to address the gap by examining how societal culture, leadership and adjustment success are interrelated for expatriate managers in Kenya and Ethiopia.

Questionnaire data were obtained from a) local middle managers (N=160) for studying societal culture and leadership in Kenya and Ethiopia, b) expatriate managers in non-governmental organizations – NGOs (N = 28) for studying expatriate managers' personality, motives and adjustment success and c) their immediate subordinates (N= 125) for studying the expatriate managers' behaviours and their subordinates' reactions to them. Additionally, expatriate managers were interviewed and responses were coded for implicit motives, experiences and adjustment. SPSS was used to analyse data from questionnaires to obtain cultural and leadership dimensions, leader behaviour and subordinate reactions. The NVIVO computer based disclosure analysis package was used to analyse interview data.

Findings indicate that societal culture influences leadership behaviours and leadership perceptions while the expatriate managers' motives, behaviours, personality and the cross cultural training they received prior to their assignment impact on the expatriates' adjustment success and on subordinates' reactions to them. The cultural fit between expatriate managers' home country (19 countries) and the target country (Kenya or Ethiopia) had no significant association with adjustment success but was positively related to expatriate behaviour and negatively associated with subordinates reactions. However, some particular societal practices – obviously adopted by expatriates and transferred to their target country – did predict subordinates' commitment, motivation and job satisfaction. Furthermore, expatriates' responsibility motivation was positively related to their adjustment success. Regarding leadership behaviours and effectiveness, expatriate' supportive behaviours predicted subordinates' job satisfaction most strongly. Expatriate managers expressing their management philosophies and experience shed light on the various aspects of adjustment and management of NGOs. In addition, review of Kenyan and Ethiopian cultures and the NGO context in these countries offers valuable information for expatriate managers.

This study's general implication for Cross Cultural Management and International Human Resources Management is that the combination of culture general and culture specific knowledge and reflections on Eastern Africa countries can inform senior management and international HR staff about the critical issue of what to include in training, coaching, and actual experience in a particular host country in order to ensure effective leadership. Furthermore, this knowledge is expected to influence expatriate managers' behaviour modification to enhance positive subordinate reactions. Questions about how to prepare expatriate managers and subordinates to work more competently and sensitively across cultures are addressed. Further theoretical implications, limitations of the study and directions for future research are also addressed.

Key Words: International HRM, Societal Culture, Leadership Prototypes, Subordinate Reactions, Eastern Africa

Dedication
In Memory of
The Late Mama Marcella Eliuba Aloo
and
The Late Dr. Magdalene Nafula Juma
For their love, inspiration and encouragement

Acknowledgements

A word of thanks to all those who supported me during the research and writing of this thesis. My first and foremost thanks to Prof. Felix Brodbeck, my thesis supervisor, for his initial and continued faith, encouragement and suggestions. My appreciation to you for your time, advice, patience and help in clarifying my ideas and concepts. To my second supervisor Prof. Pawan Budhwar for your suggestions and encouragement.

I would also like to express my gratitude to: The general and middle managers of various financial institutions in Kenya and Ethiopia for responding to questionnaires on Societal Culture; those expatriate managers in both countries who accepted to be interviewed and their subordinates who responded to a questionnaire about them; and my research assistants Nicholas Mungai, Senait Melaku and Ashenafi whose efforts made data collection possible.

In particular, Dr. Margaret Lombe for her moral, spiritual and material support, especially for advice on statistical analysis, suggestions and proof reading. These were greatly appreciated. To Dr. Judy Scully, Yves Guillaume and Jeremy Dawson for suggestions, ideas and assistance on statistical and interview analysis.

My gratitude to all my friends in Birmingham and abroad who supported me in many different ways during my stay in the UK. Special thanks to the members of Work and Organizational Psychology Group (especially Jennifer Thompson and Lynne) and the Aston Academy for Business and Management Research (Pam, Andreas, Sue and Imelda), for their assistance when I needed it.

Thanks to my cohort for making my time at Aston University memorable, and to the community members at Manresa House, the British Province, the Eastern Africa Province, and the Wisconsin Province who facilitated, supported and financed my studies. Finally, to my family for their patience and encouragement, to you and others I have not mentioned, THANKS.

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Abbreviations

CLT	Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership Theory
CMS	Commitment, Motivation, Satisfaction
CRDA	Christian Relief and development Association
CRS	Catholic Relief Services
CTE	Committee on Trade and Environment
DPPC	Disaster Prevention Preparedness Commission
GLOBE	Global Leadership Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness
HCNs	Host Country Nationals
IHRM	International Human Resources Management
ILT	Implicit Leadership Theory
INGO	International Non Governmental Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JRS	Jesuit Refugee Services
KNCSS	Kenya National Council for Social Sciences
MNC	Multinational Companies
MNE	Multinational Enterprises
PCNs	Parent Country Nationals
TCNs	Third Country nationals
UN	United Nations
UNHCR	United Nations Higher Commission for Refugees

Clarification of Terms

Since words may have different meanings in different contexts, some of the terms used in this study are clarified as follows:

Expatriate Managers: These are foreign country directors, programme and project managers, financial and department managers/directors. Some organizations use the term director while others use manager for equivalent positions in INGOs. Managers in this study include: top managers and directors while expatriate will include any non-national of the country in question. Currently, the following countries were considered: USA, U.K., Ireland, England, Germany, Belgium, Canada, Switzerland, Chile, Colombia, France, Italy, Portugal, Philippines and India.

Subordinates: These include immediate subordinates who are usually senior managers and whose responsibility is to report directly to the expatriate manager. Nationals and expatriates are included here because some expatriates may have been in the organization longer than any national and may know the manager's behaviour better. Subordinate reactions refer to their psychological states of Commitment, Motivation and Satisfaction denoted by the acronym "CMS"

Adjustment: What is expatriate adjustment? It is "The degree of psychological comfort with various aspects of a host country" (Black and Gregerson, 1991). Ayman (1997) conceptualizes adjustment as the degree of fit between the expatriate and the environment, both work and socio-cultural. Adjustment in this case is marked by both reduced conflict and increased effectiveness. Adjustment and adaptation are used interchangeably to indicate a feeling of acceptance and satisfaction (Bristlin, 1988), acquisition of culturally acceptable skills and behaviours (Bochner, Mcleod and Lin, 1977), the nature and extent of interaction with host nationals (Sewell and Davidsen, 1961) or lack of mental health as stress and depression (Berry and Kim, 1988). In this study, we look at whether or not the expatriate managers have adjusted to the new country especially to their subordinates? How does their behaviour as leaders affect their subordinates' organizational commitment, motivation and job satisfaction?

Chapter One

Introduction: Perspective and Significance of the Research

This introductory chapter highlights expatriates adjustment and subordinates reactions in the context of culture and leadership. It provides a general background to this study outlining the research aims and questions. It proposes a rationale for the study and introduces the objectives it seeks to fulfil. It also outlines the expected academic and managerial implications of research into expatriate adjustment, subordinates reactions, culture and leadership. Finally, it gives a brief synopsis of subsequent chapters.

1.1 Introduction

Given the increasing globalization of movements of labour between countries and the growing interdependence among countries the need for a better understanding of cultural influences has never been better (House et al, 2004). People find themselves working in countries and among cultures that they could not have dreamed when they joined their organization. They are confronted with situations that are highly complex, constantly evolving, and difficult to interpret. One vital aspect in International Human Resource Management (IHRM) is the assignment of employees by organizations to operations abroad (Brewster, 2002; Poole 1999; Cascio and Bailey, 1995). These employees, commonly known as expatriates are expected to work successfully in environments unknown to them. This is not an easy task especially in developing countries with fluctuating political and economic circumstances, requiring adjustment to uncertainty, and to reactions of subordinates who can either cooperate or be difficult towards the expatriate manager. In addition, the demands of the new culture and leadership expectations can weigh down the expatriate manager if not acknowledged early in the assignment.

The 21st Century may very well become known as the century of the “Global World” (McFarland, Senen, and Childless, 1993). It is now believed that the amount of influence, prestige and privilege given to leaders varies widely by culture. In some cultures, there are severe constraints on what leaders can and cannot do. In some cultures, leaders are granted a substantial amount of power over followers and are given special privileges and high status. Globalization of Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Charities presents numerous cultural and leadership challenges e.g. the identification and selection of leaders appropriate to the cultures in which they are functioning, the management of organizations with culturally diverse employees, as well as cross cultural negotiation. There is little guidance for leaders facing these challenges (House, Wright and Aditya, 1997; House and Aditya, 1997). Cross cultural research and a development of cross cultural theory are needed to fill this knowledge gap.

The calibre of the people in the organization is the source of efficient implementation of the goals and mission of the organization, especially for NGOs in developing countries. International NGOs operating in these countries need to pay special attention to this most critical resource, human resource, one that provides control over other resources such as material and financial (Greengard, 1995). The need for development and humanitarian

assistance in developing countries has necessitated the involvement of international non-government organizations (INGOs) in assisting to bring change to these countries. Eastern Africa, for example, has a number of INGOs such as UNHCR, CRS, JRS, CARE, OXFARM and CONCERN among others that are helping to eradicate poverty, illiteracy, improve healthcare, relief to refugees, and get involved in education and other development projects (Jaeger and Kimono, 1990; Jackson, 2002; Kiggundu, 1989; Dia, 1996; Akinnusi, 1991).

These organizations require qualified local and international personnel to ensure the successful planning and implementation of projects. Depending on the country of origin of the personnel managing the international organization, ethnocentric clashes may arise in interactions between host country nationals (HCNs) and parent country nationals (PCNs) or third-country nationals (TCNs). Fundamental differences can exist regarding the ways that information is collected, processed, stored and used by those involved in cross-cultural exchanges. It is anticipated that HCNs will withhold social, administrative and technical support from expatriates whenever the latter are perceived to be engaging in “threatening” or “inappropriate” behaviours (Shaw, 1990). The process of adjusting to another culture by expatriates can be difficult if not aided by training prior to and during the assignment, and given support from the parent and host organizations (Selmer, 2002).

Given this context of increasing globalization of labour and the need for competent culturally sensitive managers, the main concern of this study is the relationship between culture and leadership. It explores whether or not culture has an impact on expatriate managers adjustment and subordinates reactions. It further explores expatriate managers’ motives and behaviours and their impact on immediate subordinates’ psychological states of organizational commitment, motivation and job satisfaction. It also examines the extent to which cultural forces do influence the expectations that individuals have for leaders and their behaviour, in this case, by analysing how expatriate leaders’ motives and behaviours impact on subordinates. It is expected that leadership styles vary in accordance with culturally specific values and expectations (House et al, 2004). Personality is another aspect considered in this study. It affects behaviour (Hofstede, 1980) while cross cultural training can enhance smooth adjustment (Forster, 2002; Caliguiri, 2000; Black et al, 1991; Church, 1982; Florkowski and Fogel, 1999).

Why consider the role of societal and organizational culture in influencing leadership? We consider it because what we need are theories of leadership and organizations that transcend

cultures. However, there are inherent limitations in applying theories across widely varying cultures (House et al, 2004). The reason is that what functions effectively in one culture may not function in another. Successful managers in one culture may not be successful in another (Selmer, 2002; Aycan, 1997). Therefore, what will cross cultural research do for us? It will help us test our knowledge in other cultures, identify boundary conditions for our theories, fine tune existing theories by incorporating cultural variables, and identify potentially universal aspects of leadership (Berry and Dosan, 1974; Dorfman, 2004). Having considered the reason for cross cultural research, a background to this study will clarify why the topic of culture and leadership in relation to expatriate managers' adjustment and subordinate reactions in international non-governmental organizations in Kenya and Ethiopia was chosen for investigation.

1.2 Research Background

Most African nations after independence (1957-1965) proceeded to replace foreign staff which had dominated their economies (Dia, 1996; Jackson, 2002). This process known as indigenization (Akinnsusi, 1991), involved replacing foreign staff by well trained local staff. Apart from programmes of indigenization, the governments encouraged foreign investment. With the exception of former socialist countries like Tanzania, Algeria, and Ethiopia (after 1974), the private sectors of the economies of African capitalist countries like Kenya and Uganda are dominated by multinational companies, mostly from the West and more recently, from developing countries, mainly in Asia (McLean and Marshall, 1998; Jackson, 2002; Kamoche, 2002).

International environments are changing rapidly and through the media, we are able to know the various aspects of life in different parts of the world. Africa has had its share of attention in the last two decades mainly due to wars, deteriorating economic situation in a number of her countries, AIDS and the abuse of human rights (Kameri-Mbote, 2000, Jackson, 2004). This and the need to improve people's way of life in its various aspects (health, education, shelter, and environment) have drawn both local and international NGOs to this urgent call for assistance. In Ethiopia, the NGO Code of Conduct (1999) confirms that NGOs operating in Ethiopia are committed to the advancement of the people, including improvements in their quality of life, and the promotion of social justice, particularly for those who are

disadvantaged and marginalized. It is therefore, essential for INGOs to train managers who will successfully manage projects that affect peoples' lives¹.

Because of the importance of INGOs and their intervention in the various aspects of life in Ethiopia and Kenya (Telake, 2005; Muiruri, 2000) their impact is felt by most of the population. INGOs were chosen for this study because the researcher had worked in these organizations in the two countries as a project manager and country director. In Ethiopia, monthly meetings organized by Christian Relief and Development Association (CRDA) for top management in NGOs were used for briefing them about changes in policies, sharing experiences etc. This necessitated research on culture and leader behaviour preferences. Through the sharing of experiences, many expatriate managers lacked knowledge of the Ethiopian culture and were frustrated by the behaviour of their employees especially immediate subordinates.²

In summary, International NGOs have been of great assistance in improving the situation in both countries. They perform a variety of roles and there is hardly any area which is left untouched by them, be it natural resources, finance, human settlements, social development, culture and education (Kameri-Mbote, 2000). These organizations have played an effective role in changing the scenario of present day Kenya and Ethiopia either by setting agendas or pushing governments to do things which they needed to do. Unlike multinational companies, NGOs can fall into the trap of assuming that their employees will adapt to the environment with the help of the host nationals who are grateful for their assistance (Tekle, 2005). This may not be the case, they may resent the expatriates managers for taking jobs that would have been given to them. Therefore, in order to be successful in adjusting to this new situation the managers need to be culturally aware and sensitive to the new culture and leadership preferences.

Despite this realization of cultural awareness and sensitivity, there are reasons given by organizations as to why some expatriate managers are not sufficiently prepared. Some of the reasons for failure to prepare expatriates adequately may include, the urgency of someone to fill up a position in relief disaster work, or that the expatriates in question has had experience in other third world countries (Lee, 2005, Selmer, 2002, Black and Mendenhall 1990).

¹ Dr. Daniel Sahleyesus Telake in his recent book "Non-Governmental Organizations in Ethiopia: Examining Relations Between Local and International Groups" The Edwin Mellen Press, 2005; demonstrates the change in relationships with INGOs in Ethiopia from donor-recipient type to (close to partnership).

² Cf. footnote no. 2

Countries differ even if they are in the same region and some preparation in the culture of the host country is important for a successful adjustment. In addition, other factors such as environmental demands (work and social), the individual's attitudinal and behavioural inclinations and the support of the host and parent organizations have to be considered (Caliguiri, 1997, Forster, 1992, Selmer, 2000).

In conclusion, this background has shown that problems of relief and development in these countries have received the intervention of INGOs. These INGOs are in need of people who are culturally sensitive to manage and lead these operations. This need for cultural awareness and leadership preferences through training to refine motives and behave appropriate to immediate subordinates has necessitated this study. In light of this background, the research problem has been identified and a number of aims and questions have been formulated in order to address the relationship of culture and leadership in the context of expatriate managers' adjustment and subordinates' organizational commitment, motivation, and job satisfaction.

1.3 Research Problem

The international movement of human resources has generated the development of research which targets the adjustment of expatriates in foreign cultures (Lee, 2005). Both multinational companies and international NGOs are faced with the problem of staffing their projects abroad with cross culturally competent expatriate managers. A comprehensive literature review indicates that lots of research has been undertaken in USA, Europe and Asia to determine reasons for success or failure of expatriates in their assignments and ways to improve their adjustment process (Forster, 1997; Selmer, 2004; Caliguiri, 2000; Aycan, 1997). This kind of empirical research has not been carried out in some parts of the world such as Eastern Africa where there has been a steady increase in the number of international NGOs (Kameri-Mbote, 2000: 2) and multinational companies from different parts of the world.³

Secondly, in Kenya and Ethiopia, like other African countries, there is the problem of Expatriates' motives and behaviour towards subordinates. Inappropriate behaviour can lead to subordinate low motivation, reduced commitment and low job satisfaction (House et al,

³ Dr. Aminu Ma has published some papers on this theme. One of the first was the chapter "Expatriates' Intercultural Effectiveness by Chance of Birth" published in Selmer's 1995 edited book *Expatriate Management: New Ideas for International Business*, Westport, CT,: Quorum Books.

2002). Therefore, there is need for sufficient knowledge of the Kenyan and Ethiopian culture and leadership preferences. This varies with each country and may not be regarded just as a region with similar cultural values as Hofstede (1980) suggests, giving expatriates a general rather than specific view on cultural and leadership differences. Their perception of the host country's culture may affect their adjustment process and eventual success or failure in the given assignments. Therefore, the problem of the lack of knowledge and awareness of cultural and leadership preferences in the expatriate managers' adjustment process and the impact of expatriates' motives and behaviours on immediate subordinates will be examined in this study. Having identified the research problem and reasons for examining expatriate adjustment and subordinate reactions, the next section states the research aims and questions.

1.4 Research Aims and Questions

The aim of this research is to provide insight into expatriate managers' adjustment (motives, leadership behaviour, and personality) and its impact on immediate subordinates in international non governmental organizations (INGO) in Kenya and Ethiopia. As a consequence, it is believed that the study will have implications for INGO in preparing expatriate managers to be cross culturally competent, sensitive and thus able to adjust to a new cultural work environment; and also be sensitive to immediate subordinate's reactions. A practical implication is that knowledge of cultural and leadership dimensions, indigenous Kenyan and Ethiopian culture, NGO environment, and insight into the impact of expatriate managers' motives and behaviour on subordinates will influence managers' behaviour modification to enhance positive subordinates' organizational commitment, motivation and job satisfaction (House et al, 2002). It is expected that subordinates who are satisfied with the way they are treated will perform better (Selmer, 1997). Appropriate cross cultural knowledge of the host country acquired through training and experience can facilitate the expatriate managers' adjustment to a new environment (Varner and Palmer, 2005). It is also expected that a well adjusted expatriate will behave appropriately in the new culture and treat subordinates in a respectful and professional way (Shay and Baack, 2004).

With these considerations, the aims and questions derived from these aims can be outlined as follows:

- a) *To determine societal culture and leader behaviour of the host nation considered to be essential to expatriate managers' adjustment.*

What knowledge of the host nation's societal culture and leader behaviour facilitates a smooth socio-cultural adjustment for the expatriate managers?

- b) *To identify expatriate managers' motives and leadership behaviours in the host country.*

What expatriate managers' motives and leadership behaviours are portrayed to immediate subordinates?

- c) *To identify immediate subordinates' reactions to expatriate managers' motives and behaviours.*

What impact do expatriate managers' motives and behaviours have on the psychological states of immediate subordinates?

- d) *To determine whether or not cross cultural training received by expatriate managers is sufficient and necessary for adjustment to the new culture.*

Do INGO expatriate managers to Kenya and Ethiopia receive appropriate training?

- e) *To determine whether or not cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility will contribute to adaptability to Kenyan and Ethiopian cultures.*

What personality traits of expatriate managers are suitable for adjustment in Kenya and Ethiopia especially to work and immediate subordinates?

These aims point to the direction in which we will proceed in terms of what we will research. Our focus therefore, is on expatriate manager's motives, behaviours and personality and how these impact on immediate subordinates. Expatriate managers act as leaders in a foreign country which has its own culture. Hence, this is a study of culture and leadership. The context is INGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia. The next section gives objectives about what we intend to achieve.

1.5 Objectives

What we intend to achieve can be outlined as follows:

- i) To find out whether or not culture makes a difference in expatriate managers' adjustment and subordinate reactions in Kenya and Ethiopia.
- ii) To find out the impact of expatriate managers' motives and behaviour on their immediate subordinates.
- iii) Explore whether or not Cross Cultural Training is received and its impact on Expatriate Managers
- iv) Explore which of the five personality traits are suitable for adjustment and subordinate interaction in Kenya and Ethiopia

- v) Explore from Expatriate managers' own experience which factors influence expatriate adjustment and management

A further explanation on how the aims and objectives were derived will be discussed in the theoretical chapter (Chapter 3).

1.6 Methodology

This study utilizes questionnaires and interviews as set out in chapter four. The questionnaires and interviews are analysed for results that are discussed in chapters five and six. This study has used primary data. The reason is that it helps us understand how the data should appear and we are able to spot and correct anomalies. The data on expatriate's adjustment, personality and subordinates' rating of expatriate managers' behaviour was collected at a specific period. There were three sets of questionnaires: first on societal culture and leader behaviours (middle managers); second, expatriate adjustment and personality; third, subordinate rating of expatriate managers' behaviour and subordinates reactions to it.

Expatriate managers were interviewed regarding their experiences on adjustment and management in general. For general information on expatriates in the two countries, the chief immigration officer in Nairobi and the INGO desk at the Ministry of Justice in Addis Ababa were also interviewed. In addition, information from organizations studied and literature on NGOs, indigenous culture expatriates, subordinates, culture and leadership was consulted. The next sections discuss the significance of the study, the gap in knowledge, the contributions to be made, and organization of the study.

1.7 Justification: Significance of the Research

This study is justified for a number of reasons. First, increased globalization of industrial and other organizations and the increased interdependencies among nations have brought the need for a better understanding of cultural influences on expatriate leadership and organizational practices (Wright, 1996; House et al, 2004). Second, expatriate leaders, subordinates and would be leaders must face constantly changing and complex situations (Lee, 2005). These leaders, some of whom are of international NGOs also face fierce and rapidly changing international competition (as regards funding) and need to be culturally competent in order to cope (Hudson, 2000; Lee, 2005). Third, the trend towards a global economic village demands effective organizational leadership for the success of international organizations (Yukl, 2002).

While the world is indeed getting smaller, multinational organizations and international NGOs must be continually reminded that cultural differences are very real and that they affect the success of their expatriate managers on global assignments. In addition, the feelings of the host country should be taken into account. In Sub-Saharan Africa, there is a sense of betrayal by INGOs who think that they have answers to Africa's problems. Their interventions and now as advisors to governments on how aid or debt relief money should be used, is paternalistic.⁴

The rationale for the topic on expatriate adjustment is that in Eastern Africa, each country is quite different especially with regard to attitudes to work and to foreigners. These attitudes have an effect on adjustment with regard to subordinates supporting expatriate managers. Unfortunately, no empirical work has been done on the topic in this part of Africa. Literature search to date indicates that no empirical work has been carried out by researchers on this topic in Eastern Africa. There is sufficient literature on expatriates in USA, Europe and Asia (Selmer 1995, 2000, 2001; Aycaan 1997; Black et al 1991; Caligiuri 1996; Foster 1997; Tung 1987; Lee, 2005) that has helped identify the key areas of research on the topic.

This study focuses on the relationship between culture and leadership in the context of expatriate managers and their subordinates. The managers and their subordinates include nationals and expatriates from international non governmental organizations (INGOs). The countries studied are Kenya and Ethiopia. These countries were chosen for study because the researcher had worked in both countries and experienced the two cultures especially the people's attitudes towards foreigners and problems expatriate managers faced in dealing with immediate subordinates. Second, although the two countries share borders, their histories are very different, they view INGOs differently, one was colonized the other not, and many aspects of their cultures also differ. A study such as this will enable expatriate managers to have knowledge of societal culture, leadership preferences and subordinate reactions to certain leader behaviours. This knowledge is expected to enhance successful adjustment in both Kenya and Ethiopia.

1.8 Contribution to Knowledge

Expatriate managers of INGOs have for the past decades been sent to Kenya and Ethiopia to manage operations such as food relief, children's welfare, floods, water projects etc (Muiruri, 2000, Zewde, 2002). During these assignments, they are expected to behave and interact with

⁴ Article in New Africa, August/September 2005, No. 443; page. 12

the host nationals especially their immediate subordinates in a way that will enable them to adjust to the people and to their work. A well behaved and adjusted manager will receive positive responses from immediate subordinates who will in turn commit themselves to the organization, feel motivated and satisfied with their jobs. The uniqueness of this study is that it considers how subordinates in these two countries feel when confronted with the behaviour of their expatriate managers. It does not claim to generalize its findings to all sub-Saharan countries, but offer a contribution to expatriate managers coming to Kenya and Ethiopia as they encounter new cultures and leadership preferences. This encounter offers rich experiences from both sides and an exploration of these provides us with appropriate knowledge for those wishing to work in these countries.

Since appropriate leader behaviour and sensitivity to culture (Hofstede, 1980, 2001a) is essential for expatriate manager's adjustment and subordinate reactions (Selmer, 2004; House et al, 2002), this research has the potential to make a significant difference in the adjustment process of expatriate managers, preferred leader behaviours and cultural knowledge in the host cultures; and even encourage international NGOs to take cultural and leadership training seriously. Despite the very specific focus of this study, research implications could extend beyond Kenya and Ethiopia to other countries of Sub-Saharan Africa.

Existing literature has identified culture, leadership behaviours, personality (Aycan, 1997; Black, 1988; Black et al, 1991; Caliguiri, 2000; Church, 1982; Forster, 2000; Selmer, 2001; 2002) as essential in expatriate managers' adjustment in Asia, Europe and the US. However, no empirical work exploring the expatriate manager's adjustment (motives, behaviours and personality) and their impact on subordinates in Kenya and Ethiopia exists. It is rare to find literature on subordinate reactions to expatriate managers in these countries. This is usually overlooked in INGO and International Human Resources literature presuming subordinates will react favourably to managers of organizations that have come help their people. High turnover is simply explained by the fact that subordinates are looking for greener pastures when in certain circumstances the behaviour of expatriate managers causes them to leave the organization (Berhanu 2002; Clark, 2000; Kameri-Mbote, 2000). Now work on culture and leadership preferences could take into account the impact of expatriate managers' behaviour on immediate subordinates.

It is the aim of this research to rectify this through gathering quantitative and qualitative data regarding culture, leader behaviours in Kenya and Ethiopia and applying this to expatriate

managers' own culture and leader behaviours in relation to immediate subordinates. The study endeavours to supply new information regarding the knowledge expatriates need to know about Kenya and Ethiopia and possible reactions of subordinates. A central research goal is to find whether or not culture and leader behaviour affects adjustment and how immediate subordinates respond to this. The model could be used in training future expatriate managers to Kenya and Ethiopia. This research will also devote specific attention to expatriate managers' experiences in the adjustment process and how their philosophies of management affect this process. Finally, research aims add to the existing body of knowledge of expatriate management/HRM by contributing new finding regarding expatriate managers' motives and behaviours and reactions to them. The adjustment process in these cultures maybe more complicated than previously researched in Europe, Asia and the Americas. This investigation may help draw out additional factors in adjustment. Its utilization of expatriate managers and their immediate subordinates in INGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia should make for especially interesting findings.

Please review the table 1.1 below for a diagrammatical interpretation of the research design plan covering the aims, objectives and main hypotheses

1.9 Expected Academic and Managerial Implications

International Human Resources Management

Empirical investigations in the area of International Human Resources Management especially expatriate managers will have positive consequences for African managers and scholars and potential expatriate managers to African countries. The more we know about the African worker and his or her thought system, the more effective we shall be in managing him or her (Ahianzu, 1986:55; Kamoche, 2004). For example, findings in this research on subordinate reactions to expatriate managers inform us that leader behaviours preferred in Kenya and Ethiopia such as participative leader behaviour should be considered by HR departments when selecting expatriates to these countries. Apart from selection procedures, cultural practices, values and leader preferences can be used in training and coaching.

Table 1.1 Thesis Design Plan

Aims	Objectives	Methodology	Theoretical Model:
Determine host nations' societal culture and leader behaviour.	Quantitatively, establish societal culture and leadership dimensions for Kenya and Ethiopia	<p>Hypothesis 1: <i>Societal Culture:</i> (Cultural practices and values)</p> <p>Hypothesis 2: <i>Intercultural Personality Traits</i></p> <p>Hypothesis 3: <i>Expatriate managers' leader motives</i></p> <p>Hypothesis 4: <i>Expatriate managers' leader behaviours</i></p> <p>Questionnaires</p> <p>And</p> <p>Structured Interviews</p> <p>Expatriate Managers' Adjustment and Management Experiences</p>	Theoretical Model: Expatriate managers' adjustment and subordinates' reactions
Identify expatriates managers' motives and leadership behaviours	Quantitatively and qualitatively, establish expatriate managers' motives and behaviours		Outcome: > Cultural and leadership dimensions > Leader motives & behaviours > Personality traits > Subordinate reaction > Antecedents of adjustment
Identify Subordinates reactions to expatriate motives and behaviours	Quantitatively, establish subordinate reactions to expatriate managers' motives and behaviours		Contribution: > Culture and leadership preferences, Indigenous & modern culture: Kenya & Ethiopia > NGO Environment > Expatriate Managers' experiences > Antecedents of Adjustment > Subordinate reactions to expatriate managers' motives and behaviour (related to culture)
Determine Cross Cultural Training (CCT)	Qualitatively and quantitatively explore whether or not CCT was received and its impact		
Determine Personality traits for adjustment	Quantitatively and qualitatively, explore personality traits suitable for adjustment in Kenya and Ethiopia		
	Qualitatively explore antecedents of expatriate managers' adjustment and management experience		

Cross Cultural Management: Practical Implications

The cultural practices, values and behaviours that are associated with effective leadership in Kenya and Ethiopia provide a comprehensive set of information. This is in addition to information on indigenous and modern cultures that have implications for management and the NGO environment in these societies. This should be of interest not only to managers who want to develop their awareness of the critical aspects of effective leadership in different cultures, but also to those interested in developing a better understanding of the different cultural backgrounds which shape the way people feel, think, and act at work and in other contexts. Furthermore, expatriate managers will gain a deeper understanding of the host nations' implicit and explicit theories about working together, leadership and their own respective concepts. The combination of culture-general and culture specific reflections on Kenya and Ethiopia will inform senior management and international HR staff about the critical issue of how much prior training, coaching and actual experience in a particular host country is necessary to ensure effective leadership.

1.10 Organization of the Study

This study is organized into seven chapters and the structure of each is described as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction: Perspective and Significance of the Topic

This chapter highlights expatriate adjustment and subordinate reactions in the context of culture and leadership. It provides a general background to the study and describes the interest, concern and research aims and questions. It proposes a rationale for the study and introduces the objectives it seeks to fulfil. The gap in knowledge is identified and the expected contribution outlined.

Chapter 2: Literature Review (clarifies the background and context of the study)

This chapter outlines the structure and strategy of the literature search by offering a critical review of a wide range of literature pertinent to the study of culture and leadership with a focus on expatriate adjustment and subordinate reactions. It sets expatriate adjustment within the context of International Human Resources Management and International non-governmental organizations in Kenya and Ethiopia. A detailed examination of cultural and leadership dimensions' literature is presented and implications of cross cultural research for expatriate managers is discussed. The chapter ends by reviewing reported methods of study identifying possible methods of investigation.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Hypotheses (Uses information from chapter two to select inquiry method). This chapter provides the research design of the study by describing the kind of research and the research process. First, it summarizes the conclusions of literature review then provides previous methodologies and theories relevant to this study. Secondly, it describes the research design by developing a conceptual framework and a model for expatriate managers' adjustment and subordinate reactions. Thirdly, it formulates hypotheses from the main topics of the study. Finally, the chapter reviews the design and hypotheses summarizing what have been discussed.

Chapter 4: Methodology

This has two parts, part one describes the methodology used in the study; explains questionnaire and interview design and data collection. It then reports details of the investigation carried out and documents difficulties experienced. The second part describes and summarizes preliminary results and evaluates the reliability of the raw data.

Chapter 5: Hypotheses Testing

This chapter and the next are the core of the thesis. It analyses the quantitative data resulting in findings by testing hypotheses to find whether or not they can be accepted. It then presents conclusions of the findings and assesses their significance in terms of research aims and questions.

Chapter 6: Qualitative Results

This chapter analyses qualitative data and presents findings from interview questions. It reviews the conclusions from the findings and explains their significance. The reliability of the results is given and finally, conclusions of the findings are presented in terms of research aims and questions.

Chapter 7: Discussions and Conclusions

It reviews the conclusions in terms of the initial aims and discusses the findings of chapter five and six. The chapter then outlines and explains the contribution to knowledge of the investigation as a whole and analyzes the implications of the contribution. It offers recommendations and suggests topics for future study. Finally, it also offers conclusions to the study.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

This chapter outlines the structure and strategy of the literature search and reviews the context of the proposed study by clarifying what is already known. The chapter offers a critical review of a wide range of literature pertinent to the study of culture and leadership with focus on expatriates' adjustment and subordinates' reactions. It sets expatriate adjustment within the context of International Human Resources Management and International non-governmental organizations in Kenya and Ethiopia. Adjustment, culture and leadership are defined and expatriate managers' adjustment is examined in view of culture, leadership and subordinates reactions to expatriate leader motives and behaviour. A detailed examination of cultural and leadership dimensions literature and aspects of indigenous and modern cultures of Kenya and Ethiopia are discussed. In addition, NGO context and environment relevant to expatriate managers is also discussed. The chapter ends by reviewing the reported methods of study identifying possible methods of investigation.

2 Introduction

In order to identify and define the research topic and problem, a broad literature search was carried out. Articles from various relevant journals and books on International Human resources Management, Organizational Behaviour, Cross Cultural Issues, Expatriate Management/Adjustment and Leadership were explored. Evidence from the literature confirmed the relevance and importance of culture and leadership in expatriate managers' adjustment, and the impact of their behaviour on subordinates (Ayman 1997; Black et al, 1999; House et al, 2002, 2004; Caliguiri, 1997). Special attention is paid on the context of the study, namely, expatriate managers working in non-governmental organizations in two Sub-Saharan countries; Kenya and Ethiopia.

Considering the aims and objectives of this study, the key areas for literature search emerge as;

- i) International Human resources Management (IHRM) dealing with foreign staffing and other activities that affect foreign assignment; such as expatriate adjustment. Other aspects of global staffing include managerial skills, cultural sensitivity and awareness, leadership qualities, and staffing preferences (parent country national - PCN; host country national – HCN; and third country national - TCN). The context of the study being HRM in Kenya and Ethiopia was also reviewed including non-governmental organizations environment in these countries; In this context, issues of indigenous and modern cultures in Kenya and Ethiopia are critically evaluated.
- ii) Expatriation adjustment covering factors influencing adjustment, theories and models, and cross cultural training;
- iii) Cultural Issues related to expatriate adjustment such as cultural practices and values, and the importance of cross cultural adjustment;
- iv) Organizational Behaviour covering leader motives and behaviour of expatriate managers, their personalities and the psychological impact of their behaviour on subordinates', organizational Commitment, motivation and job satisfaction.

The sections that follow provide a critical review of each of these areas. They focus mainly on cultural influence on leadership as expatriate leaders try to adjust to a culture that is new to them and how their behaviour and motives impact on subordinates. Because of the scope of the study, only relevant literature to adjustment, culture, leadership, INGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia was reviewed and critically evaluated.

Part 1: Human Resources Management and NGO Context

Overview

Throughout this literature search and review, approaches to a number of questions are meant to increase our knowledge and understanding of the topic. The topic of expatriate adjustment encompasses various issues and concerns on which research continues to be undertaken. Key sources are journals and books on International Human Resources Management, Expatriate Management, Comparative Studies, Cross Cultural Studies and Organizational Behaviour. There are also articles in newspapers about what expatriates do, how they behave and the reactions of the host nation to their behaviours. The NGO sector is chosen because of the humanitarian and now development done by it. The major issues discussed include; components of adjustment, both anticipatory and in-country adjustment (Black, Mendenhall and Oddou, 1991); the multi-dimensional aspect of adjustment namely, psychological and socio-cultural adjustment (Aycan, 1997); Personality traits suitable for adjustment (Huang et al, 2005; Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000); Mentoring as a source of support in the adjustment process (Mezias and Scandura, 2005); Spouses' adjustment (Shimoni et al, 2005); cross cultural training (Selmer, 2001, Wavin and Panaccio, 2005) to name a few. Since this study focuses on culture and leadership, the key theories included adjustment theories, cultural theory and implicit leadership theories. The debate on major issues, questions and problems was dealt with in the review. For an overall view of the topic, a start with a review of IHRM literature regarding overseas assignment was appropriate. The next section reviews literature on global staffing, HRM in Kenya and Ethiopia in the context of non-governmental organizations.

2.1 International HRM

Schuler, Budhwar and Florkowski (2002) offer a review and critique of international HRM that is comprehensive emphasizing that IHRM should be studied in the context of changing economic and business conditions. They review the existing state of academic work in IHRM and illustrate how it incorporates the content and how it might be expanded to do so. It is stressed that serious consideration should be given to the dynamics of both the local/regional and the international/global business context in which the firm operates (ibid, 41). The process of internationalization is a complex one. It consists of much more than simply seeing the successful implementation of organizational goals in one country and reproducing them in another (Harzing and Van Ruysseveldt, 1995)

IHRM is concerned with the global management of human resources (Brewster, 2000; Poole, 1999; Adler and Ghadar, 1990) and its purpose is to enable the firm, the multinational enterprise (MNE), or international organization, to be successful globally (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1998). Its main objective in the MNE is to recruit and retain an international workforce of the best people available for the jobs to be done, and to increase the effectiveness of the workforce (Schuler and Jackson 2001). One model of IHRM that incorporates a broad, contextual reality is that offered by Schuler et al (1993) with three major components: issues, functions and policies and practices. IHRM policies and practices relevant to the needs of international organizations include those related to planning, staffing, appraising, compensating, training and development and labour relations (Dowling et al. 1999). These activities serve internationally to strengthen inter-unit linkages in numerous ways, including: a) comprehensive human resource planning, ensuring that the international organization has the appropriate people in place around the world; (b) staffing policies that capitalize on the world wide expertise of expatriates, third country nationals (TCNs) and Host country nationals (HCNs); (c) Training and development initiatives that prepare individuals to operate effectively in their overseas locations and to co-operate with other MNE units (Schuler et al, 2000:46). In the interest of this study, we focus on particular IHRM policies and practices, namely staffing and training.

2.1.1 Global Staffing

International human resource staffing is a major practice that MNEs have used to help coordinate and control their global operations (Harvey et al, 2000; Dowling et al, 1999; Mendenhall et al. 2002; Stroh and Caliguiri 1998). The usual way was to use parent country nationals abroad to ensure the policies and procedures of the home office were being carried out to the letter in foreign operations (Brewster and Scullion, 1997; Scullion and Brewster, 2001). Although this has changed because of high costs, MNEs still use technical troubleshooters, structure reproducers and general management operation (Black et al, 1999). Identifying and selecting expatriates for foreign assignments remain a concern for MNEs (Harving, 2001). Davision and Punnet (1995) argue that international managers and researchers need to avoid an “ostrich-like” attitude to “gender and race blindness” when dealing with international assignments. It may not be easy to avoid bias, but existing research suggests that the selection process should be done more systematically without gender bias and more strategically, e.g. using expatriates to help transfer knowledge and learning

(Bronache and Fernandez, 1999). In addition, researchers may need to isolate the relative impact that individual characteristics (e.g. knowledge, skills, abilities) have on successful completion of international assignments as well as other organizational factors e.g. supporting systems (Petrovic et al, 2000; Scullion and Starkey, 2000).

An area of further research opportunities is staffing with third country and host country nationals. While the use of more TCNs and HCNs may solve staffing need, it raises concerns about the ability to satisfy the needs of co-ordination and control and transfer of learning across regional units (Pucik, 1988; Harzing, 2001; Ouchi and MacGuire, 1975). It is important to note that some HCNs may have been trained in the MNE's parent country and thus possess knowledge and skills that the PCN may possess. The problem here may be TCN and HCN bias by the MNEs and international organizations.

Concerns remain about the biasing effects that the culture and norms of parent firms and organizations can have on socialization processes (Pucik and Katz, 1986). These ethnocentric forces can compromise the multinational organizations' ability to identify and benefit from cultural synergies in their operating units. One means of combating management ethnocentrism would be to engage more TCNs in preference to PCNs (Cappelli and McElrath, 1992). There is need to facilitate and diffuse cultural synergies, industries become more trans-national in nature (Adler, 2001). More research is needed in this area. Caliguiri (2000) examined the relationship between host national contact and cross national adjustment of expatriates. Her findings suggest that greater contact with the host nationals positively relates to cross cultural adjustment when an expatriate possesses the personality trait of openness. The personality characteristic of sociability was also related to cross cultural adjustment (Schuler et al, 2000:50). Despite suitable personality traits and greater contact with host nationals, the expatriate needs training at all stages of the adjustment process.

Training and development is another aspect of IHRM that presents a means of linking the dispersed units of MNE and international organizations.⁵ Previous research focused on the pre-departure training extended to PCNs and their families. High failure rate was associated with lack of preparation (Lee, 2005). US multinationals tend to engage in less training than do their European and Japanese counterparts (Noble, 1997; Tung, 1982). It is noted that, US

⁵ Schuler et al, 2000 mention that given the strategic context in which they wrote their article, use of the concept of Human Resource Development (HRD) might be preferable to training and Development because for some HRD is seen as more closely linked to the strategic needs of the business imperatives (Sambrook, 2000), and because HRD is more closely likened with HRM and the mutual attainment of individual and organizational goals (Legge 2001)

MNEs ordinarily place less emphasis on language, interpersonal skills, and culture sensitivity in their training programs than do MNEs based elsewhere (Dowling et al, 1999). As regards reasons for failure in the assignment, more research is necessary in order to control potential cultural biases better (e.g. home country differences in the willingness to disclose organizational shortcomings or seek early repatriation). Better paradigms (e.g. social learning theory and culture theory) have emerged concerning the impact and likely success of cross cultural training (Bhawuk, 1998; Black and Mendenhall 1990; Kim, 1995; Selmer, 2001). A solution to the staffing problem would be to have a pool of “global managers”, as these managers are developed, they need to have global awareness of the MNEs and the sensitivity to local cultures and knowledge of local conditions, particularly labour relations and laws (Bartlett and Ghoshal 2000; Evans, 1992)

Finally, researchers should not lose sight of the interface between HRM systems that MNEs and international organizations utilize and the national HRM systems that comprise their operating environment. The entrenched features of indigenous employment relationships are difficult to alter (Schuler et al, 2000:63). HRM policies and practices in the host nation need to be known by the MNE or international organization. A brief review of HRM themes in Africa will pave way for HRM discussion in Kenya and Ethiopia.

2.1.2 HRM in Developing Countries

Although 80% of the globe is comprised of countries termed “developing”, Punnett (2002) points to the difficulties and sensitivities of defining it. The term “developing” is used (for example by the United Nations) to describe a broad range of countries which include those with both high and low per capita national incomes, which are heavily dependent on primary production and normally lack an advanced industrialized infrastructure, including education, health, communications and transport facilities (Jackson, 2004: 1-13). All countries of Sub-Saharan Africa fall under this category, but we focus on Kenya and Ethiopia.

In discussing HRM in these countries, we face the problems of adopting the developed-developing world paradigm and the need to understand this in the context of cross cultural theory. The paradigm projects a view that “developing” countries should become more like the “developed” countries: the United States and Western Europe in particular (Jaeger and Kanungo, 1990). In this case, the aim is to make the developing countries become more like the developed countries. This includes introducing “modern” management methods, in order

to manage staff more efficiently. Jackson (2004: 243) emphasizes that by positioning our understanding within a multicultural context that operates at different levels, and within the framework of developing effective hybrid forms of management, it may be possible to appreciate the contributions that can be made to management from a more humanistic view of people in organizations. In order to develop hybrid forms of people management, the concept of participative management is required at different levels of decision making. There is also a need for high level of awareness of multicultural dynamics that incorporates not only an appreciation of one's own culture and others' cultural values and aspirations, but also an understanding of the powers that exist often as a result of a colonial legacy (Jackson, 2000a, 2002b).

Western style HRM practices taught in business schools both in the developing and developed world may be the cause of lack of success in operations. The western expatriate managers may believe that they have nothing to learn from their colleagues in developing countries and vice versa. Yet working within the multicultural contexts of emerging countries, who had to reconcile humanistic values with instrumental ones, community values with work values, and have had to develop multi-ethnic workforces, and now have to work with colleagues in neighbouring countries, have a lot to teach (Jackson, 2004:244) . Not all have been successful managers. Therefore, success in developing effective people management processes lies in developing a body of knowledge from successful stories with the emerging countries, and in sharing information with colleagues in emerging countries around the world (Schuler et al, 2002).

With the growing significance of developing countries in the global world (as suppliers of cheap resources, buyers, competitors, capital users and home for the majority of MNCs' foreign direct investment) and international non-governmental organizations, both academics and practitioners need to know how HRs are managed in these countries (Budhwar and Debrah, 2002). This will contribute both to theory and practice development. Because the challenges of management of HRs in developing countries are complex and demanding, this brief review is to provide an understanding of the dynamics of HRM and more awareness of the diverse and unique configurations of national factors (cultural, institutional and business environments) which dictate HRM in cross cultural settings like Kenya and Ethiopia. This awareness will enable us to better understand the "context-specific" nature of HRM in these countries and the need to acknowledge the strength of cross national differences.

2.1.3 HRM in Africa

There are emergent themes in human resources management in Africa (Kamoche, et al, 2004: 184-189). The first major theme revolves around the HRM ramifications of structural adjustment Programs (SAPs) in African countries were expected to implement World Bank and IMF inspired economic reform measures (Market-led reforms) in an attempt to turn their economies around. Many countries liberalized their economies and privatized former state owned enterprises (SOEs) (Debrah and Budhwar, 2001). The evidence of strategic HRM approaches in firms in Africa is largely limited to multinational companies and progressive African companies operating in global markets and who themselves have become multinationals. Another important element of the SAPs, privatization of SOEs, has invariably lead to job loses in all the countries with SAPs as new owners reduce employment to levels they consider both efficient and economic (Kamoche et al, 2002, 185). For example, Ethiopia provides clear evidence of how, in the pursuit of efficiency, privatization has lead to massive job losses and deterioration of the conditions of service of workers. In view of this, trade union leaders and others have condemned the privatization programs, but proponents of privatization argue that rationalization of employment is a necessary condition for the survival of firms and will eventually lead to better pay and working conditions. The flight of knowledge from Africa or between African countries (the brain drain dilemma) is becoming critical as more African countries seek to attract, develop, and retain key skills to grow their economies and compete both domestically and globally.

The second theme is the “Brain Drain”; talent attraction and retention is the lament or decrying of the brain drain in Africa. Causes have been discussed and the main labour receiving countries in Africa are Botswana, Mauritius and South Africa. The neo-classical approach, for instance, maintains that international labour migration arises from supply and demand, or “push and pull” factors (Lee, 1966). Reasons of migrants; low wages, economic fluctuations, and political force/crises such as wars and are pulled to other countries attracted by the attraction of high wages, better job opportunities, and better social, economic, and political conditions.

The third theme is the issue of diversity management. There is persistence of particularistic rather than universalistic practices in the management of human resources. This is evident in Kenya and Ethiopia where nepotism, favouritism, and ethnic biases are widespread in the labour market and are widely practised in both public and private sector organizations (Kamoche, 2001). Particularism based on ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, and age

differences and often manifests itself in favouritism in recruitment and selection, promotion, and pay decisions (Nyambegera et al, 2000, p. 640). Arguably, a positive manifestation of particularism is an emergent debate in some countries like South Africa about fostering a unique or special African organizational culture based on humanistic philosophies of “ubuntu.” Advocates of this approach argue that just as Japanese, American, or German firms may have organizational cultures which reflect particular values and practices in those societies; it is valid to endeavour to develop organizational cultures in Africa which reflect indigenous values (Ngambi, 2004, 107). Detractors argue that diffuses of Western business practices and their underlying tenets will more likely prevail, given the homogenizing influence of globalization and multinational firms. While Nyambegera (2002) has provided an excellent analysis of the ethnic dimension of managing diversity discourse, more empirical research is necessary.

Fourthly, the HIV/AIDS pandemic is a global problem and has potential to derail any gains in productivity in Sub-Saharan African Organizations in the last two decades. AIDS is devastating African economies and societies. It is estimated that over 28 million people in Africa are living with HIV and in some countries 30% of the adult population is infected with the virus (UNAIDS, 2002). In Kenya, AIDS accounts for up to three out of four deaths in the police force (UNAIDS, 2002). In 2003, HIV/ AIDS prevalence rate estimates were 6.7% for Kenya and 4.4% for Ethiopia. In the same year, persons living with HIV/AIDS were 1.2 million in Kenya and 1.5 million in Ethiopia (CIA Fact book, 2008). Hence, we emphasize that to maintain the success of organizations, there is need to develop and implement culturally sensitive, non-discriminatory workplace HIV/AIDS policies and programs.

The challenges facing the management of people in Africa are clearly daunting. Like other Africa countries, Kenya and Ethiopia are affected by these themes and require appropriate macro-economic policies and the political will to address them as well as addressing poverty, high unemployment, and a serious lack of human resources development. Human resources management and development will provide the key to unlocking Africa’s human potential. That is why it is so important to research and develop best practice in this area. In the review of HRM in Kenya and Ethiopia, we focus on the relevant themes for this study. The main themes in their cultures (indigenous and modern) will be examined and how these have implications for management and leadership. The NGO context and environment has constraints on management and leadership styles that can be employed. We commence with HRM in Ethiopia.

2.1.4 HRM in Ethiopia

Mekonnen and Mamman (2002) acknowledge that there have been attempts over the years in Ethiopia to import some elements of modern management practices and philosophies such as human resources management. The management practices that used to work may need improvement and people through education have skills that require them to be managed in a particular way. Apart from the number of people a country or organization has, it is the quality of those people that counts (Kamoche, 1996). How can people be made into resourceful human beings? In a poor country like Ethiopia, a committed and competent workforce is needed for successful implementation of the nation's plans for economic and social development. Arguably, the brain drain experienced by Ethiopia and other African countries in the last three decades does not make the task easier (Mekonnen and Mamman, 2002, p. 104)

2.1.4.1 Context of HRM

Ethiopia like many African countries is ethnically diverse. It has an estimated population of 76 million⁶ and is a composite of more than 70 ethnic groups. The Oromo (Galla) group represents approximately 40% of the population and is concentrated primarily in the southern half of the nation. The Amhara and Tigrean groups constitute approximately 32% of the population and have traditionally been dominant politically. The Sidamo of the southern foothills and savanna regions account for 9%, while the Shankella make up about 6% of the population and reside on the western frontier. The Somali (6%) and Afar (4%) inhabit the arid regions of the east and southeast. Nilotic peoples live in the west and southwest along the Sudan border. The Gurage account for 2% of the population; the remaining 1% is made up of other groups. The Falasha (who call themselves Beta Israel, and are popularly known as "black Jews") live in the mountains of Simen. The Beja of the northernmost region, the Agau of the central plateaus, and the Sidamo of the southern foothills and savanna regions are the remnants of the earliest known groups to have occupied Ethiopia⁷. This diversity of the population is the basis of nepotism affecting many Ethiopian organizations (to be discussed later).

⁶ 76,511,887: *note:* estimates for this country explicitly take into account the effects of excess mortality due to AIDS; this can result in lower life expectancy, higher infant mortality and death rates, lower population and growth rates, and changes in the distribution of population by age and sex than would otherwise be expected (July 2007 est. (CIA Factbook, 2008))

⁷ http://www.photius.com/countries/ethiopia/society/ethiopia_society_ethnic_groups_ethni~171.html
Sources: The Library of Congress Country Studies; CIA World Fact book, 2008

Ethiopia, like many African countries, is poor and its economy is largely based on Agriculture (52.3 %). The industrial sector is also significant with (11.1%) and services (36.6%) of the country's GDP (Makonnen and Mamman, 2003, p. 105). The economic condition of Ethiopia has undergone various stages and has been affected by the internal political crisis, armed conflict, and radical institutional reform between 1977 - 1991. The economy began to recover during 1978-1980, as the government consolidated its power and implemented institutional reforms grounded in socialists principles. This recovery was short lived because between 1980 and 1985 the economy experienced a massive set back partly because of the draught (Ofcansky and Berry, 1991).

The government adopted a new strategy for the country's future economic development in 1990. The strategy included decentralization in planning and a free market mixed economy in which the private and public sectors would play complementary roles (Jesiah, et al, 2006). This new strategy would have implications for management in Ethiopia. It would permit Ethiopian and foreign private individuals to invest in foreign and domestic trade, industry, construction, mining, and agriculture, and in the country's development in general (Mekonnen and Mamman, 2003, p. 105). Many critiques saw the plan as irrelevant given the deteriorating political situation that led to the fall of the military regime in 1991 (Ofcansky and Berry, 1991). A market-oriented economic policy was launched in 1992 and privatization of state-owned enterprises was considered an integral part of the broader macro-economic reform. This privatization is an aspect that has affected HRM and calls for a discussion. Before we discuss privatization it is worth noting that the recurring drought is another important feature of Ethiopia's social economic development and has implications for HRM. In 2002, drought put 14.3 million Ethiopians at risk of famine (Government of Ethiopia, 2002). This, coupled with over 3 million HIV/AIDS infected people, significantly retards the development of the country. Although there are many issues that could be examined in relation to HRM, we suggest that privatization, education, training, brain drain, trade unions and societal culture be discussed in this study since they touch the core of HRM in Ethiopia. An expatriate manager assigned to Ethiopia needs to understand this context since the day to day administration of his/her NGO is affected by the context.

2.1.4.2 Privatization and HRM

According to Makonnen and Mamman (2003) the relevance of privatization to HRM cannot be overemphasized. The Ethiopian Privatization Agency (EPA) was established in 1994 to

take charge of the process. From employees and trade union perspectives, economic restructuring, and privatization in particular, have always been a prelude to the introduction of modern rational management practices. Although it is too early to judge the overall consequences of privatization, however, evidence from other countries indicates the following: rationalization of employment; introduction of modern working practices; limited role for trade unions; more redundancies and dismissals; and lack of guarantee for immediate improvement on organizational work performance (Degefu and Nega, 2001). For Ethiopia, this is not a recipe for retaining a highly qualified workforce.

Jesiah et al's (2006) using data over nine years, 1994/95-2002/03, applied correlation and regression analysis to find out the effect of the Ethiopian privatisation programme on investment. Their study revealed that the effect of privatisation on investment is robustly negative, owing to the lack of in-depth insight not only into privatisation programme itself, but also into overall reform and structural adjustment programmes. Moreover, the economic and political instability coupled with a weak potential domestic investment are also equally contributing factors. They also affirm that the nation's inherent problems of bureaucracy, commercial framework, and property issues must be overcome to make privatisation programme more fruitful on the aspect of investment attraction. Another suggestion is that better market conditions coupled with financial reforms is indispensable to prevent the Ethiopian economy from the further investment sabotage.

2.1.4.3 Education and Training

Formal and informal education system determines the quality of the human resources of any country. To fully understand the level of skills and educational system of the Ethiopian labour force, a historical background is essential. Historically, education in Ethiopia was biased towards religious learning, but in the twentieth century the system failed to meet the needs of the nation in diplomacy, commerce and industry (Makonnen and Mamman, 2003, p. 107). The system was changed and by 1974 about 10% of the total population was literate (Ofcansky and Berry, 1991). The overall literacy rate in 1996 was 23%, and in 2007 it had reached 42.7 % (CIA, Fact book, 2008). Successive governments have made efforts to improve the level of skills and educational attainment as a whole. Ironically, some of the positive outcomes generated by the previous educational policies are actually benefiting foreign countries instead of Ethiopia. Currently, the profile of human resources development (HRD) does not foster the development of adequate human resources (Defege and Nega,

2000). There is need for trained labour that is relevant to the economic development of Ethiopia. This is one of the limitations of the educational reforms in Ethiopia. There is lack of relevance to the socio-economic environment. This is a common problem to most African countries (Kamoche, 2004; Kanungo, 1995). There is also lack of stability in reform due to instability of the political economy (Mekonnen and Mamman, 2003, p. 108). A solution to relevance could be addressed by basic training needs analysis at national level. Also development plans should not be abstract. Furthermore, political and economic stability is essential to developing an effective educational system.

2.1.4.4 Brain Drain

It is unfortunate that although the Ethiopian labour market has a surplus of skilled and unskilled workers, many of them do not fit the current needs of the economy. Many of those who have the “right” skills have migrated in search of “greener pastures”. This could be blamed on the failure of both the educational and economic systems (Shinn, 2002). This brain drain has an impact on Ethiopian economic and social development and the labour market is seriously affected by it. This is a challenge not only for the government but for organizational and HRM professional as well. What model of HRM should be developed? Mekonnen and Maamman (2003) suggest that a model that emphasizes commitment and loyalty is very relevant here. Application of this will depend on the economic condition of the nation and the organization in particular. To solve the brain drain problem, Shinn (2002) argues that at the most general level, countries that are serious about reducing the overflow of professionals need to strengthen their economy across the board, improve governance, and increase political freedom. This is applicable to Ethiopia. Other recommendations which are relevant to Ethiopia were suggested at a conference sponsored by the Economic Commission for Africa (2000) on how developing countries can address the issue, these are:

- Provision of funding to investigate the extent and impact of brain drain;
- Cooperating with African countries to address the problem of human capital development and utilization at sub-regional level.

Another topic of interest to expatriate managers would be trade unions. Following the overthrow of the socialist government in 1991, trade unions in Ethiopia have become relatively more independent. Despite internal strife and national economic problems trade unions still play a vital role in the labour market since it is necessary to check the excesses of privatization and the market economy (Ibid, p. 110). The proposed HRM model by Mekonnen

and Mamman (2003) will find a home in the Ethiopian environment since the trade unions are weak and the influence of the market economy is growing. Nevertheless, the success of the HRM model would depend on the socio-cultural context of Ethiopia. This is the next subject of discussion and it affects those foreigners assigned to work in Ethiopia.

2.1.3.5 Societal Cultures and HRM

“...because many of our human resources management tools have been developed primarily within a context of economically developed nations, most have never been appropriate for the use in developing countries. Traditional based HRM theories, with their lack of contextual embeddedness, their strong individualistic orientation, and their emphasis on freewill..., mismatch what is most salient about the nature of work and human systems in developing countries” Kanungo (1995:11)

The culture of Ethiopia is very multi-faceted, reflecting the ethnic diversity of the country of over 70 ethnic groups. Among many traditional customs there are those that are reflected in the lives of most Ethiopians. According to Mekonnen and Mamman (2003), of all the factors affecting HRM in Ethiopia perhaps none is more potent than the national culture. Although there are nine cultural dimensions according to House et al (2004), in this review we focus on three main dimensions as an example, namely; collectivism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance which affect management and leadership.

Collectivism

Like other collectivist cultures, Ethiopia views people largely in terms of groups to which they belong. Social groups such as family, social class, organizations, and teams all take precedence over the individual. In Ethiopia, one's identity is based on group membership and collective views are considered better than individual opinion. (Mekonnen and Mamman, 2003, p. 112). In this society, individuals remain loyal to the group in which they are members. This and other collectivist values have implications for HRM practices in Ethiopian organizations especially in recruitment and selection when family, ethnic and tribal interests play a major part in the process. Assisting relatives and tribe members is expected and highly valued. It is important to note that although organizational policy might not encourage such practices, managers are not penalized if they recruit people on the basis of nepotism.

It can be argued that hiring persons from a specific group familiar to the members of the organization can reduce risk and help to maintain loyalty (Hofstede, 1991), such practices can

be counter productive if unqualified persons are employed to do the jobs. Connected to this is the difficulty managers have in taking disciplinary action against employees who are related to them. It would be difficult for an expatriate managers' immediate subordinate to dismiss a relative working in the same NGO even when the relative deserves disciplinary action. Furthermore, Ethiopia has a high ethnic diversity and hiring relatives can lead to conflict and low trust among other members of the organization. Considering this cultural context, expatriate managers working in Ethiopia have to take these values into account and adjust their management and leadership styles accordingly.

Performance appraisal is another area of HRM practice affected by collectivism. The main aim of the activity is to provide information to determine promotion, transfers, salary increases, and to supply data to the management on performance of the employees to determine training needs (Harrison, 1993). In Ethiopian organizations, there is potential and covert resistance to evaluating and discussing individual performance (Mekonnen and Mamman, 2003, p. 112). Evaluating the workgroups, sections, or departments is more acceptable than evaluating the performance of an individual worker. This maybe acceptable to some HRM models that advocate self managing teams and participation, but it affects determining training and development needs of employees.

The aspects of collectivism mentioned above are in conflict with the model of HRM because the key levers of HRM as identified by Storey (1992) assume individualism. Employees are treated as individuals and treated accordingly in areas of recruitment, selection and training. In contract, nepotism in Ethiopian organizations would make the application of this approach to managing people very difficult indeed.

Power Distance

This pertains on how cultures deal with inequality (Hofstede, 1991; House et al, 2004). Ethiopia is a high power distance country and has norms, values, and beliefs which assume that people have their station in life and inequality is fundamentally acceptable. It is also acceptable that Ethiopians should be dependent on the privileged and powerful. The powerful are entitled to privileges as well (Dadi, 1997). Therefore, because of the high power distance, most organizations are characterized by hierarchical decision-making systems and inequality pervades not only across roles but also within roles. For example, in Ethiopian Evangelical Church Makane Yesus (EECMY), decisions made by executives or top management lack

consultation with other staff. Privileges for members of top management, such as vehicle usage, housing allowance, office sizes and furnishings (EECMY, 1995), are provided based on power distance not on needs of the job. This attitude and behaviour pervades many Ethiopian organizations. This could be expected of an INGO and immediate subordinates are members of top management with benefits that other members of staff do not have. These values are in contrast with HRM approach of employee participation, leading to gaining employees' commitment and productivity and ensuring flexibility and a flatter structure. In a high power distance culture like Ethiopia, the need for status and image demands vertical differentiation to justify or maintain status and image (Mekonnen and Mamman, 2003).

Uncertainty Avoidance

This relates to norms, values, and beliefs regarding tolerance for ambiguity (Hofstede, 1991). Ethiopia is a strong uncertainty avoidance culture. Such cultures seek to structure social systems (political, education, and business) where order and predictability are paramount and rules and regulations dominate (House et al, 2004). Risky situations create stress and upset people and they view conflict as unnecessary and needing to be avoided.

For expatriate managers assigned to Ethiopia, it is important to note that, due to strong uncertainty avoidance, Ethiopians sometimes prefer people who are cautious, not risk-takers and rules and regulations are considered very important and should be followed. Mekonnen and Mamman (2004:115) stress the following aspects in relation to the strong uncertainty avoidance culture of Ethiopia:

- The role of experts and people in authority is considered very important and should be followed;
- Consensus making is considered vital for the health of society

This dimension of Ethiopian culture is reflected in organizations and according to an analysis of a survey of members of public sector organizations in Ethiopia, 56% of them indicated that the degree to which the climate of their organizations encourage risk taking is low (Dadi, 1997)

HRM model is contrary to what has been mentioned about Ethiopian culture viewing rules as important in managing employment relations is impatient with rules (Storey, 1992). As earlier mentioned, strong uncertainty avoidance cultures like Ethiopia are uncomfortable with ambiguity and therefore insist on rules to ensure certainty in behaviours. This is expected of

both Ethiopians and foreigners. Therefore, managers and employees in Ethiopia are more comfortable with operating under rules. However, it should be pointed out to foreigners that the rules followed in Ethiopia are both formal and informal. Another important aspect of HRM in Ethiopia is the government. We will discuss this later in the chapter in relation to non-governmental organizations whose environment and context is vital to expatriate managers' adjustment.

2.1.5 HRM in Kenya

2.1.5.1 Context of HRM Kenya

Three contextual factors are important in interpreting HRM patterns in Kenya: a wide range of ethnic groups; high levels of population growth; and constrained economic development focused mainly in urban areas. Kenya has 43 indigenous ethnic groups, all of which are believed to have come to this part of Africa from other parts. Alongside African Kenyans are a good number of Arabs, Indians, and Europeans (CIA Fact Book, 2008). With the many ethnic groups and cultures, we can conclude that the Kenyan culture is not homogeneous, although an overall national pattern may be discernible. The impact of such ethnic loyalties on HRM preferences will be in conjunction with values orientations.

The recent crisis in Kenya after the December 2007 elections has brought to light the hidden tensions among the ethnic groups in Kenya. The conflict affected the economy but after the signing up of an agreement for the opposing parties to share power, it is improving.⁸ After independence in 1963 Kenya maintained a steady economic growth rate; but throughout the 1980s and 1990s, these gains have largely been reversed and many Kenyans are economically worse off than they were 20 years ago (Kamoche et al., 2004:88).

Kenya has gone through substantial changes especially economic and socio-political, particularly since the 1990. This has had a dramatic effect on the industrial and managerial scene, with far reaching effects on the workforce. The changes began with the move towards political pluralism in 1991 which brought a sense of confidence and hope for a better future. Economic liberation was introduced in 1993, and consisted of the elimination of price controls, import licensing, and foreign exchange controls (ibid, p.88). These reforms produced a brief period of economic growth which in 1995 reached 5%. This growth proved

⁸ Articles in the Daily Nation , Nairobi, January to March, 2008

to be unsustainable and by 2002 it had fallen to -0.3% (Economic Survey, 2002; International Monetary Fund (IMF), 2002). After the new government in 2003, it picked up to from -2.8 in 2003, to 4.8 in 2004; 5.7 in 2005; 6.1 in 2006 and 5.8 in 2007 (CIA Fact book, 2008). Aid was suspended by IMF in 1997 and 2001 when the government failed to institute the much needed economic reform especially measures to curb rampant corruption. Corruption has had an extremely dire effect on the economy (Kamoche et al., 2004:88). During this period, the problems of high corporate taxation and banking rates, poor infrastructure and insecurity resulted in high operational costs for organizations since they had to invest in additional infrastructure, providing their own power generation and additional security (ibid., 89).

Kamoche in (Budhwar and Debrah, 2001) highlights the prevalence of traditional administrative procedures and personnel management in Kenyan organizations whose roots were sown during the colonial era. He explains how the colonial rulers encouraged foreign investments and systematically stifled indigenous enterprises. He then discusses the main national factors (such as national culture, political and economic environment) which significantly influence HRM in Kenya. He also explains various phases (militancy to tripartite agreements) through which industrial relations in Kenya have progressed over the past sixty years. Finally, Kamoche illustrates how the “resource-based view” of the firm can be adopted to understand the role of strategic management of HRs in the Kenyan context.⁹ Consideration of the political-economic and the socio-cultural environment helps us understand the context of HRM. In Kenya, an understanding of the context of HRM must take account of the current state of the economy and in particular the way the economy has been plundered through graft and mismanagement (Kamoche, 2001).

2.1.5.2 The Current HR Challenge in Kenya

With the above scenario, of widespread labour cuts, business closures, and concomitant high unemployment, the challenge for managers is to maintain morale and secure, train, and develop people while working under intense budgetary constraints (Kamoche, 2001).

Kamoche stresses that Kenya is in dire need of human resources reform measures to counter the out migration of skilled people and reverse the brain drain affecting the country (also see Akinnusi, 1991, pp. 159-172). This calls for the formulation of a strategic human resource (utilization) policy and the adoption of supervisory and managerial practices which allow staff

⁹ This is a summary of Ken Kamoche's chapter on Human resource management in Kenya in Budhwar and Debrah, (2001): Human Resource management in Developing Countries, Routledge, New York

to realize their maximum potential and contribute to the development of their organizations (Balogun and Mutahaba, 1990).

Kenya, like the rest Sub-Saharan Africa countries, has been seriously hit by the HIV/AIDS pandemic. The most affected are those in the most economically productive group: 20-50 years. The life expectancy of Kenyans fell from 57 years in 1990 to 48 years in 2001, with a tremendous drain on the economy (Ndichu, 2001), and as for 2007 it was 56 years (CIA, Fact book, 2008). The HIV/AIDS pandemic presents an unprecedented challenge that calls for the development and implementation of appropriate strategies to reduce its rapid spread.

Another challenge in an ethnically heterogeneous society like Kenya is ethnicity. This ethnicity is in one sense an important source of diversity but, unfortunately, it has historically been a source of ethnic tensions which are, for most part, merely latent (Kamoche, 1992). The question of ethnicity has impinged heavily in the workplace. It manifests itself mostly through favouritism in recruitment, career advancement and the provision of training opportunities. Although this is opposed by the intellectual elites, others interpret it in terms of the notion of obligation to close relatives and friends (Kamoche, 2000). Others see this as an adaptive response to workplace alienation whereby workers from the same rural area come together to give each other psychological and material support in the unfamiliar city environment (Blunt, 1980). Despite the fact that particularistic practices are now widely inevitable, personnel and HR managers, especially in multinational and international organizations, have had to insulate themselves from charges of tribalism and nepotism by striving to formalize procedures in recruitment, promotion and career management (Blunt and Popola, 1985).

2.1.5.3 Current Trend in HRM in Kenya

In this section we discuss the current trend in: recruitment and selection, performance management, training and development, the problem of brain drain, industrial relations and the socio-cultural factors.

Recruitment and Selection

Kamoche et al., (2004), emphasis that in most organizations in Kenya, the management of people has continued to be characterized by an approach that focuses largely on the adoption and use of formal administrative practices as opposed to the strategic development of human

recourse skills and competencies. As regards recruitment, the traditional approach of issuing requisition to the HR department, which consults with top management about whether there is need to hire and whether a budget exists is followed. Although this is the case and jobs maybe advertised in the papers, particularistic approaches are fairly common, and involve nepotism and various other forms of favouritism. This is even more marked in the public sector, which is characterized by unfair recruitment and promotion practices (ibid, p. 90) and lack of respect for professionalism. This is manifested through the ethnicization of recruitment and promotions (Nyambegera, 2002).

Performance Management

Performance management is a problematic activity as Rice (1990) argues employees feel threatened and sometimes even managers (i.e. the appraisers) are often unsure of what to do. In Kenyan organizations, Kamoche reports that among the organizations that participated in his study, differences existed both within and across cultures. Practices included: self-appraisal, ranking performance on an unsatisfactory-outstanding continuum and making comments on personal achievements and disappointments during the year and suggestions for general improvement. This exercise is made complicated by cultural and social issues (Mendonca and Kanungo, 1996). Ethnicity and Kinship play a role when performance is used especially those who are known and cannot be selected for redundancy. In this case to have good relationship with the appraiser or come from the “right” tribe can expect to receive favourable assessment (Nyambegera, 2002). This practice of exclusion on grounds of ethnicity has to be eliminated in Kenya if there is to be organizational effectiveness. It is unfortunate that the high level of job insecurity and unemployment in Kenya has further politicized performance appraisal and managers are caught up in the socio-cultural and economic context of Kenya today where many are under pressure to give favours while at the same time projecting an image of objectivity (Kamoche et al, 2004: 92). These contradictions are increasingly difficult to reconcile.

Training and Development

Training and development are considered central to organizational functioning. Kamoche (2000) points out that the evidence in Kenya suggest that training is largely treated as a cost, and the economic situation has made it more difficult for managers to view training as an investment. The failure to invest systematically in training and development is therefore

hurting industrial development and impeding improvements in labour productivity which is recognized as a major problem in Kenyan industry. Current efforts of training are limited to equipping employees with narrowly-defined firm specific skills that facilitate the attainment of short term objectives (Mulinge and Mueller, 1998). It can be argued that to develop people and raise labour productivity in Kenya, organizations will need to transform the way they develop people by nurturing cultures that value contribution from their employees, undertake cost-efficient training activities that are geared to enhancing labour productivity and product quality and are consistent with well defined long-term business strategies (Kamoche, 2004: 93). One reason why some organizations are reluctant to train is that the trained employees seek greener pastures abroad.¹⁰

The Problem of the Brain Drain

The brain drain problem in Kenya and across Africa is emerging as one of the biggest threats to sustainable economic growth (Kamoche et al., 2004:96). Bodies such as ECA, the ILO, and UNCTAD have urged African governments to initiate steps for the return of skills to the continent. What is worrying is that it is the selective nature of the migration where Africa's highly trained and hard-to-replace professional to Europe, North America, Asia, and the Gulf region (Balogun and Mutahaba, 1990:66). Kamoche (2002) found that managers in Kenya, like their counterparts elsewhere, claimed that employees were their most important asset. This is ironic given the fact that while doing well in training and human resource development, recruitment, remuneration, and promotional practices have tended to undermine the capacity of organization to attract and, more importantly, retain skilled and specialized workers. We need to recognize the effect of employment practices and mismanagement in Kenya in order to understand the problem of brain drain. The problem is a result of frustration and resentment coupled with inadequate benefits and supportive facilities such as transportation, housing, and funding (Mulinge and Mueller, 1998). Resource inadequacy is known to impact negatively on employee motivation, to lower job satisfaction, and to reduce commitment to the employer. This has been demonstrated by Mulinge and Mueller, (1998).

Industrial Relations

Siddique (1989, p. 385) argues that industrial relations in developing country setting can be explained in two ways: The popular cultural based explanation and the role of the state in

¹⁰ Most of the expatriate managers interviewed in this study were of that opinion.

industrial relations (IR) systems. For example, in India traditional customs seem to have engendered a paternalistic industrial relations system (Kennedy, 1982) and in Africa reference is made to the traditional African tribal and social systems (Gonsalves, 1974; Diejomaoh, 1979). In Kenya, the state's influence is manifest through dominant role in industrialization and the labour market. Employer organizations like the Kenyan Federation of Employers (KFE) were drawn into effort in order to ensure industrial stability. Kamoche (2002) argues that the government's policy towards IR was that of exercising restraint in order to ensure the industrial stability that was deemed necessary for economic growth. However, given the deteriorating trust between the government and employees, militancy came to characterize IR e.g. Air Controllers and Kenya Union of Teachers (KNUT)

2.1.5.4 The Socio-cultural Factors

The socio-cultural context has been influenced by the "African thought system", which according to Nzelibe (1986), emphasizes ethnocentrism, traditionalism, communalism and co-operative teamwork. Kamoche (2000) refers to traditionalism as adherence to long-established attitude, customs, beliefs and practices which ultimately shape the culture and define the socially desirable norms of behaviour. The idea of "we are therefore, I am" in contrast to "I think therefore, I am" shows that one does not merely exist as an individual separate from the community but as a member of a community which gives him/her a sense of identity and belonging. Regarding teamwork, Kamoche (1997) found in a study that workers only began to accept them when the agenda went beyond quality and productivity and included personal and work related social problems. It is important to note that these socio-cultural characteristics constitute an ethos which stipulates how people wish to be treated in an African organizational context. Kenya's contextual factors are important in interpreting HRM patterns, these include: a wide range of ethnic groups; high level of population growth; and constrained economic development focused mainly in urban areas.

Regarding socio-cultural factors, the discussion is about the issues that define the beliefs, norms, practices and interrelationships particularly between management and subordinates. First, we have the us-them attitudinal cleavages in Kenyan society (Kamoche, 2001: 42). The most important manifestation is the management-subordinate divide. Miller (1984) sees this phenomenon within the broader context of increased stratification by social class, greater differences between rural and urban dwellers, discrimination against women and some minorities such as pastoralists, and major differences in access to such amenities as health and

education. This stratification is worsened by the gap between the rich and the poor which has been widening since the 1990s (Kamoche et al, 2004). Stratification is also evident in managerial attitudes; certain commentators have observed the tendency of managers to be intolerant and even arrogant. Waweru (1979) describes a wide range of complaints by workers which include the “arrogant and disrespectful” attitudes of managers. It has been claimed that African communities exhibit a high power distance (Jaeger and Kanungo, 1990). As such, “wisdom” and “the right to rule” are ascribed to the elderly or to those in positions of authority. This leads to a high degree of acquiescence in authority such that the power hierarchy is legitimized by cultural norms. Therefore, in the organizational setting, the “boss” is an all powerful being.

A related aspect is that of managerial authoritarianism, which has tended to be attributed to the colonial era (Waweru, 1975). Although many traditional African communities might exhibit a high power distance, this did not mean authoritarianism; rather, it can be argued that, the power of hierarchy was sustained by a system of paternalism. Managers in Waweru’s (1975) case study agreed that an abrasive style was prevalent in the country and that it persisted because it was considered effective. The kinship ethos in the African extended-family system can be said to have bred a form of “authoritarian paternalism. Workers thus expect to be “looked after” and are therefore in turn willing to accept that their superiors should exercise an inordinate amount of control (Kamoche, 2000).

“Ethnicity” is an important consideration for African societies, Kenya included, which are characterized by cultural heterogeneity and extended family ties. This is well expressed by Onyemelukwe (1973:25):

“In the first place, there is a heavy accent on family-blood relatives, the group of kinsfolk held together by common origin and common obligations. The family is conceived of as a large number of people, many dead, some living and countless numbers yet to be born. Every individual is taught to accept his place in this group and to behave in a way to bring honour to it. Emphasis is placed on helping others in sickness and health, success or failure. A family member fulfils his obligation not by acquiring for himself but by giving to other members.”

Ethnicity in the workplace might manifest itself in various forms: straight favouritism in recruitment and promotion, or in the search for ethnic homogeneity, perhaps, as Blunt (1980) contends, as an adaptive response to alienation at the workplace. The introduction of capitalist modes and relations of production have given rise to new forms of insecurity, and obliged people to compete with each other at the national level.

Considering human resource management policy and practice preferences of Kenyan employees, Nyembegera et al, (2000:650) study sample reveals that Kenyan employees on average prefer some degree of involvement and participation in some, but not all, policy matters affecting them. For example they prefer that performance appraisals be carried out by superiors rather than subordinates or peers, and to be able to determine their best way of working.

2.1.5.5 Effective HRM Framework for Kenya

Taking into account the above discussion on the various aspects of HRM in Kenya, an effective human resources utilization frame work for Kenya should have the following characteristics to be successful:

- It should be human-oriented. That is, it should take cognizance of the fact that human resources are not limitless (Balogun and Mutahaba, 1990)
- It must pay special attention to HR areas like recruitment and selection, performance management, rewarding, and training. Practices should be systematic, fair, motivational, and merit-based (Kiggundu, 1989)
- Remove organizational constraints on the effective deployment and development of human resources. Balogun and Mutahaba (1990) describe these as arbitrary political interference in professional matters, an overbearing hierarchical order, defective grading and position classification systems, and managerial and supervisory styles which tend to stifle initiative, breed interpersonal conflict, and block creativity.
- Address concerns related to promotional opportunities or career ladders. The proposed framework should transcend staff training to include other elements such as the development of effective and lifelong career development paths of all categories of workers.
- Enhance task performance by employees (Kamoche, 2002). The new framework must nurture a work environment that facilitates professionals and other skilled workers to perform their tasks efficiently by availing to them the necessary task resources and, generally speaking creating an enabling work environment.

Since 2003, Kenya has experienced steady economic growth and there has been reconstruction of the economy (CIA Fact book, 2008). There has been an encouragement of the use of positive practices for managing institutions which has improved the lives of Kenyans. In the past five years, Kenya has invited foreign investment and has experienced

both capital flows and an infusion of new management ideas (Nyambegera et al, 2000). Hopefully, issues discussed here will help foreign managers to align their practices to the needs of the local workforce.

2.1.6 Implications for Management and Leadership

The discussion on the context, current trend of HRM and factors affecting it in Ethiopia Kenya have implications for management and leadership in organizations especially for expatriate managers. The managers need to understand the historical context in order to adapt the current trends and management styles. In Ethiopia the effects of privatization, ethnicity, education and training, HIV/AIDS, the brain drain and cultural factors necessitate a periodic evaluation of the changing HRM environment. In both Kenya and Ethiopia, the HRM trends in recruitment, selection, performance appraisal, and industrial relations are so interlinked with cultural values that an expatriate needs to have knowledge of the realities in each country. For example, in Kenya employees need some degree of involvement and participation in matters affecting them (Nyambegera et al, 2000). In Ethiopia, managers and employees are more comfortable with operating under rules. However, it should be pointed out to foreigners that the rules followed in Ethiopia are both formal and informal (Dadi, 1997).

It takes time to change the environment. Different environments can provide different opportunities. These may differ from country to country, from organization to organization. Therefore, Ethiopian organizations may have opportunities and prospects which are favourable for adapting, such as, utilizing the collective culture to maximize teamwork and participatory management. A high level of collectivism fits with participative management. Participative management emphasizes teamwork, group harmony, and task interdependence rather than individual work (Kanungo, 1995:189). In addition, performance can be geared towards a team rather than an individual. Ethiopia and Kenya are also a low masculine culture and this can foster team motivation rather than individual motivation (Hofstede, 1980; 1991). There is need to develop creative ways of using contextual factors to implement good HRM practices.

2.1.7 International NGOs

International organizations have strict procedures and rules governing activities in the country (Rahmato, 2002). The adoption of Western management practices, for example, needs to be assessed against the organizational realities. One of the organizational realities is the growth of International Non-Governmental Organization (INGOs) in response to humanitarian and other needs in Kenya and Ethiopia. INGOs that have subsidiaries in these countries bring with them Western management practices and their expatriates expect their subordinates to adhere to these practices (Edwards and Fowler, 1999). The requirements for HRM flow out of an INGO's overall mission. An INGO works out what human resources it needs to implement in a new country strategy, recognizing that the existing situation already provides a foundation for human resources.

Since the focus of this study is expatriate managers of INGOs, a brief account of INGOs and their function in Kenya and Ethiopia will situate the research in the NGO context. We start with the NGO context in the two countries. A non governmental organization is an organization that is not part of a government and is not founded by the state (Telake, 2005: 216). It is also defined as a voluntary and autonomous organization whose life exists between the citizens on the one hand and the state and market on the other. Its main purpose is to promote collective welfare or public good (Hudson, 1999: 3). NGOs are therefore, typically independent of governments. Although the definition can technically include for-profit corporations, the term is generally restricted to social, cultural, legal and environmental advocacy groups having goals that are primarily non-commercial (Leslie, 1997).

The tag "Non-Governmental Organization" was used first at the funding of the UN. It implies that NGOs keep their distance from officialdom; they do things governments will not, or cannot do. Although the original concentration of NGOs was largely in social and welfare activities, over a period of time however, NGOs activities have become diversified and cover the environment, health, food, nutrition, water, shelter, relief and developments services just to name a few (Kameri-Mbote, 2000). Over the years, such groups have mushroomed. A 1995 UN report of global governance suggested nearly 29,000 international NGOs existed. Domestic ones have grown even faster. By one estimate alone there are now 2 million in America alone, most formed in the last thirty years. Dozens are created daily; Kenya alone, some 240 NGOs are now created each year (Alice, 1997). Most important for this study are the international humanitarian interventions by INGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia.

Because of the importance of INGOs and their intervention in the various aspects of life in Ethiopia and Kenya, their impact is felt by most of the population. INGOs were chosen for this study because the researcher had worked in these organizations in the two countries as a project manager and country director. In Ethiopia, monthly meetings organized by Christian Relief and Development Association (CRDA) for top management in NGOs were used for briefing them of changes in policies, sharing experiences etc. This necessitated research on culture and leadership prototypes. Through the sharing of experiences, many expatriate managers lacked knowledge of the Ethiopian culture and were frustrated by the behaviour of their employees especially immediate subordinates.¹¹

In Kenya and Ethiopia, INGOs face the task of implementation as they identify human resource needs in terms of competences, i.e. the skills, knowledge, attitudes and values needed to do the various tasks of translating vision into action. It is the gap between what is available and what is required. In this case, competent staff especially at the managerial level is needed to implement the INGOs aims and mission. As was briefly mentioned in the last chapter, INGOs play an important part in the lives of people in these countries. They are engaged in relief, development, or both and provide service, channel funds, carry out developments projects and frequently engage in advocacy work (Zewde and Pausewang, 2002:105). A review of literature on NGOs in Ethiopia and Kenya provided a contextual framework in which expatriate managers' function and adjust to the new culture.

2.1.7.1 NGOs in Ethiopia

In order to understand NGO management in Ethiopia it is important to consider NGO history, relations with the government, and impediments to be faced. In addition, there is a Code of Conduct and regulations on how NGOs are to operate in Ethiopia. These are not exhaustive but act as a guide for expatriate managers who to adjust have too many other situations in Ethiopia.

In a developing country environment, many organizations are dependent on the government for survival (Kanungo, 1995:250). In Ethiopia the majority of organizations are in the public sector but even the private organizations can be interfered with by politicians by not allowing

¹¹ Dr. Daniel Sahleyesus Telake in his recent book "Non-Governmental Organizations in Ethiopia: Examining Relations Between Local and International Groups" The Edwin Mellen Press, 2005; demonstrates the change in relationships with INGOs in Ethiopia from donor-recipient type to (close to partnership).

managers to have the autonomy to recruit and select employees (Dadi, 1997:29). An issue that affects all organizations in Ethiopia is the lack of political stability. After elections in 2005, there was a crisis because of election results and some university students were shot by police. The problems of the Oromo liberation Front and the Somalis in the Ogaden region still need to be solved (Jesiah et al, 2006). The current problem of Ethiopian troops in Somalia might worsen the already fragile relationship between the two countries. Apart from instability, there is the issue of frequent changes of policies, rules, and procedures thus creating uncertainty and problems in the operations of organizations. Of special interest to us are NGOs both local and international because they operate under special regulations set by the government.

2.1.7.1.1 NGO Context

Voluntary organizations are an old phenomenon in Ethiopia and were established on the social, religious, and locality or kinship criteria. They existed as self help institutions providing support in times of hardship. For instance, organizations for labour sharing known as DEBO and for religious purposes known as mahaber, senbete, tertim existed. Missionary organizations were also voluntary organizations some of which grew to become NGOs (Zegeye, 2000, p. 2).

In Ethiopia, it is almost 30 years since many of the present NGOs first began working there. The leading ones (both national and international) originally became involved in order to mitigate the effects of the draughts of 1973-74 and 1984-85. Since then, however, their emergency response to relief activity roles have gradually declined and today the important challenges are in the fields of rehabilitation and development (Telake, 2005). This change to sustainable development has far reaching significance to Ethiopia and needs to be handled with care, transparency and accountability. Therefore, the leaders have to be well trained and skilled for the managerial job in INGOs. There is also an increasing involvement of NGOs in advocacy, in human rights and civil education. As INGOs have emerged as important development partners, there is need to inform what they stand for, their policies, achievements and what they plan to do for the future¹². The NGO Code of Conduct (1999) confirms that NGOs operating in Ethiopia are committed to the advancement of the people, including improvements in their quality of life, and the promotion of social justice, particularly for those

¹² Code of Conduct for NGOs in Ethiopia, March, 1999, pg. 2

who are disadvantaged and marginalized. It is therefore, essential for INGOs to train managers who will successfully manage projects that affect peoples' lives¹³.

There are only a limited number of studies on INGOs¹⁴ in Ethiopia, and most focus on the activities of the organizations, especially in areas of relief and rehabilitation (Agri. Service, 2000; Belaku, 1997; Campbell, 1996; Clark, 2000; Tegegne, 2000 ; Van Diesen and Walker, 1999; Zegeye, 2000, and Telake, 2005). The imperial government opened its doors to INGOs in the early seventies due to the famine which grew to be beyond the ability of the state to manage. The 1980s famine brought another influx of Western NGOs into the country. Zewde (2002) believes that this INGO connection with disaster and disaster relief tarnished their image and left a residue of resentment in government circles and sections of the informed public. It is important to point out that it is as if Ethiopians, or rather the urban elite, never forgave these organizations for forcing their way into the country at a time when both state and society were overwhelmed by tragedy.

Furthermore, the growing involvement of INGOs in the country, first in relief and rehabilitation, subsequently in the development field, has its reverse side in the increasing inability of the state to meet the basic needs of people and to provide essential services (Zewde, 2002:106). In the last four decades, the crisis of public finance, made worse by war and civil conflict, and a shrinking tax base, has reduced the ability of the state to invest in development or to sustain public programs. The net result of this has been deepening poverty, growing unemployment and more frequent food crisis (Telake, 2006). Therefore, the stature of INGOs among the needy public has grown with the decline in state capacity. This is a complex context in the sense that in the eyes of the government, INGOs far from being a welcome partner become a daily reminder of its own inability to play the dominant role in service delivery and the development effort. This situation continues to sour INGO state relations.

There has been an increase in the growth of international NGOs from 46 in 1994 to 122 in 2000.¹⁵ Most of the NGO resources have been invested in four regions: 23.4 % of investment has gone to the Amhara region, followed by the Southern Region (20.6%), Oromia

¹³ Dr. Daniel Sahleyesus Telake in his recent book "Non-Governmental Organizations in Ethiopia: Examining Relations Between Local and International Groups" The Edwin Mellen Press, 2005; demonstrates the change in relationships with INGOs in Ethiopia from donor-recipient type to (close to partnership).

¹⁴ These are the NGOs that have signed operational agreements with Disaster, Prevention, Preparedness Commission (DPPC)

¹⁵ This information is from CRDA 1998, CRDA membership directories, and CRDA News, the monthly bulletin of the organization. CRDA is the main umbrella organization for NGOs

(20.3%) and Addis Ababa (17.6%). Marginal regions such as Beni-Shangul and Gambela have attracted very little NGO attention (DPPC figures cited in CRDA, 1998:13; Zegeye, 2000). Although some argue that NGOs' achievements have been limited (Van Diesen and Walker, 1999: 31-33) and should have invested more in education and health services, NGOs are reputed to be more accessible to the poor and the marginalized, and reach people in more inaccessible areas. Despite this accessibility, few NGOs are well rooted in communities they serve and quite often they are looked upon by the poor as benevolent outsiders who may withdraw their assistance at any time.¹⁶

Debate on NGOs taking over African governments' responsibilities continues. Bratton has argued that NGOs in Africa have broadened their interventions in the period since the 1970s to fill the gap left by the state. He talks about the "retreat of the African state" creating opportunities for the growth and influence of civil society (Bratton, 1989). The political experience in Ethiopia is quite the opposite. Far from "retreating", the Ethiopian state has been undergoing a massive expansion since the 1960s. Both during the Derg and the present government, the ability of the state to intervene at the local and household level, in every part of the country, has been greatly enhanced (Rahmato, 2002: 108).

2.1.7.1.2 NGOs and the Government

According to Mekonnen and Mamman (2003), NGOs have also been facing direct and indirect interference from the government. During the previous military regime (1994-1991), many indigenous and international NGOs operated under the restricted control of the government. The government was openly against international NGOs from the West (Campbell, 1996). The present government has also introduced restrictions which limit the capacity of organizations, even though it seems there is improvement. Representatives of various NGOs have felt that the current government attempts to impose greater control on their operations (Dessaiegn, 2002:103). It is not easy to invite expatriate personnel unless there is no Ethiopian who can do the job. There is an exception for top management of INGOs, where the CEO and deputy are allowed.

On the issue of recruitment and selection, the government has allowed organizations to hire their own personnel, although it has set policies, rules and procedures to be followed (Negarit

¹⁶ According to Clayton et al, (2000:7) "recent NGO impact studies and evaluations provide little evidence to suggest that (NGOs) actually are more effective than governments in reaching the poorest with development assistance"

Gazeta of the Transitional Government of Ethiopia, 1993). Because of privatization policy in Ethiopia, there is competition among organizations in the labour market while the structural adjustment policy has resulted in unemployment. INGOs have the advantage of offering higher salaries and benefits. The government issued a "Code of Conduct" for NGOs in Ethiopia in 1999. The purpose of the Code of Conduct was to ensure transparency and accountability in the operation of NGOs by voluntary self regulation; to improve communication between NGO community and the various stake holders; and improve the performance of the NGO community by encouraging the exchange of experiences among its members and learning from proven best practices. The Standard of Conduct shall refer to the way in which signatories behave and work (Government of Ethiopia, 1999).

A total of 165 local and international NGOs endorsed and signed the Code of Conduct for NGOs in Ethiopia (Government of Ethiopia, 1999). The researcher was one of the signatories. The document establishes the "norms, principles and values to standardise the conduct, action and behaviour of NGOs." Before that, NGO activities in Ethiopia were "unregulated" for almost three decades. NGOs had largely been engaged in emergency and relief activities. Their involvement in mitigating the effects of the droughts of 1973/74 and 1984/85 was enormous (Dessalegn, 2002). Indeed, they had saved millions of people from starving to death. Ethiopia has not yet developed the legal framework for NGO operation.

In this regard, the adoption of the NGO code of conduct was expected to provide a basic input into the development of the regulation. The document is indicative of the transformation taking place in the sector (Zegeye, 2000). Committing themselves to the principles of good practices, NGOs are indeed showing to their target communities, the government and other partners that they meant serious business (Zewde and Pausewang, 2002). They are sending the message of scraping the veil of secrecy and obscure dealings as they have opted for a uniform voluntary self-regulation. The code would also be instrumental in dispelling lingering misunderstanding between the government and NGOs. The former mistrusts NGOs because they have brought about little change in the living condition of the people they were supposedly serving in the past three decades of their presence in Ethiopia (Tegegne, 2000).

The "Code of Conduct" of NGOs has two major sections: Standards of Conduct and Code Observance. Listed under the standards section are principles and values of voluntarism such as community involvement, fairness and equity, ethics, transparency and accountability, governance, independence, communication and gender (Government of Ethiopia, 1999).

As set out in the code (Code of Conduct, 1999), NGOs will:

- see their efforts as a means for people and communities to solve their problems by themselves.
- act in solidarity with the goals and priorities of their target communities.
- respect the indigenous knowledge, the dignity and identity of individuals and their culture, faith and values.
- exercise and promote fairness, impartiality and equity in all of their activities and in their dealings with interested parties, community partners and the general public.
- act truthfully and refrain from practices that undermine the moral and ethical integrity of their organisations.
- be transparent and accountable in their dealings with the government, community, donors and other interested parties.
- conform to the constitution, law, rules and regulations of Ethiopia. Strive to maintain their autonomy and resist conditionalities that may compromise their missions and principles.
- fully integrate gender sensitization into their human resource development and promote non-discriminatory working practices.
- develop and promote clear and measurable impact indicators for their programmes in order to gauge relevance and effectiveness.

The Code of Conduct of NGOs in Ethiopia was believed to create an "effective and efficient co-ordination and collaboration" with the government, the public and other stakeholders. This code is a guide for new expatriate managers to Ethiopia and they have to manage their NGO according to it.

2.1.7.1.3 NGOs and democracy in Ethiopia

Almost all NGOs operating in Ethiopia, and the indigenous ones in particular, draw the bulk of their funding from external sources such as multilateral institutions and donor governments (Hume and Edwards, 1997). The Ethiopian government has also contributed through providing administrative support in the form of facilitating access to goods and services and providing land for building physical structure, and extending duty-free privileges for importing items officially approved as relevant to on-going programme components (Kassahun, 2002:126). The NGOs themselves are entangled in a vicious circle of dependence on donors and governments, target groups persistently find themselves at the receiving end of agencies posing as patrons. This explains why NGOs shy away from embarking on activities pertaining to empowerment and advocacy, which they consider political no-go areas (ibid, 126)(Hume and Edwards, 1997)

2.1.7.1.4 Identifying the Impediments

Several factors account for the inability of NGOs to act as catalyst of change through imparting democratic values. These factors also impact on the management of these NGOs. The first is “Policy Environment”. The legal basis for the establishment and operation of NGOs and public associations is enshrined in Articles 404-482 of the Ethiopian Civil Code promulgated in 1960 (IEG, 1960). Legal Notice 321 of 1966 provided further elaboration to some of the pertinent provisions in the civil code. The lust for controlling and regulating NGO activities dominates the thinking and practice of the government (Zewde and Pausewang, 2002)

The second is “Social and Organizational Factors”. Most NGOs in Ethiopia emerged in response to the 1973-74 and 1984-85 famines. They were therefore not home-grown, indigenous developments. Their programmes were not designed to address fundamental societal concerns on a long-term basis, or in line with local realities. Their leaders and staff are mainly taken from the cosmopolitan elite, whom target groups and communities tend to view as outsiders and external benefactors (Tegegne, 1994). They lack the necessary constituency of support, which renders their position increasingly vulnerable to pressures from power centres. In Ethiopia, several NGOs have been de-registered through discretionary decisions of state officials (Zegeye, 2000))

The third is “Entrenchment of Institutional and Personal Interests”. NGOs operate within the context of rules and regulations and codes of behaviour laid down by mainstream establishments (donors and governments). They have shown marked tendencies to preserve narrow institutional and personal interests. Sometimes the concern is to ensure survival at all costs and thus cannot confront the government. As Tegegne (1994:28) has argued, NGOs in Ethiopia pursued their strategy for survival by forging closer relations with the central government bureaucracy than with the local groups and institutions. As Fowler (1991) noted, only a few NGOs in Africa have democratic structures allowing for the control of their actions by those whom they serve.

The fourth is “Dependence on Governments and Donors”. The overwhelming majority of both expatriate and local NGOs in Ethiopia depend on governments and donors for the bulk of their financial and material resources deemed essential for currying out activities (Tegegne, 2000). In this way, their independence and long term survival is threatened. This is

substantiated by Weston (1994:14) who recognised that NGOs entangled in such a situation failed to distance themselves from economic and social policies with negative bearings on the poor. The unpopular measures may even run counter to their stated NGO objectives.

Therefore, in NGO management, both government and donor regulations have to be adhered to for the smooth running of the organization. These impediments are an aspect of NGO management that the expatriate manager has to face. The implications are far reaching especially when both the donors and government dictate

In summary, the discussion has highlighted the significant impact of the government in organizational life in Ethiopia. . For managers both local and expatriate, the question is “how conducive is this environment for the implementation of HRM?” If we assume that the organizational strategy should determine the HRM strategy, then the assumption is not easily achievable when the government continuously intervenes in organizational affairs. Persistent government intervention makes it difficult to develop consistent and effective organizational strategy. In HRM model, the aspect of decision making is very fast (Storey, 1992), assuming that there is freedom and independence. Government intervention lessens quick and independent decision making. This can be a slow process of implementing projects and expatriate managers are usually blamed by their headquarters abroad.¹⁷

Concluding Remarks

To a large extent, African NGOs are a replica of the post-colonial states in that both are products of “modernization”. Unfortunately, “Modernization has failed to tally with conditions prevalent in African societies. This has undermined in effect the structures of traditional wisdom and indigenous knowledge. In fact, some approaches have constituted the whole essence of the “uprootedness” of the indigenous state and non-state players. It does not mean that Africans should distance themselves, because the growing interdependence of peoples and cultures of the world necessitated co-operation and positive exchange (Kassahun, 2002:120). But the slavish imitation of approaches and strategies tends to render efforts towards transformation futile. Tegegne, (2000) noted that the traumatic experiences of the Derg area caused NGOs in Ethiopia to be overly cautious, “enormously fearful, lacking in confidence and unsure of their mission”. Therefore, there is a need to redefine their roles in a manner that necessitates shift of focus. They need to develop approaches and strategies to

¹⁷ This information is from interviews with expatriate managers in Ethiopia

facilitate conditions for democratic transformation. Thomas and Taylor (2000) note that despite moves towards greater democracy, policy advocacy in Ethiopia is viewed with suspicion by the government. Few NGOs in Ethiopia have, therefore, vocalised their support of the urban poor in cases where the government would be criticized (Thomas and Taylor, 2000). When advocacy work has been undertaken it has generally taken place at a personal level, between NGO leaders and the government.

2.1.7.2 NGOs in Kenya

2.1.7.2.1 NGOs Context in Kenya

During the colonial period in Kenya, freedom of association was not entertained¹⁸ and the two main types of civic organizations operating were: religious/philanthropic associations and the so called peoples' organizations. Four categories of NGOs are discernible in that era. The first were local charitable organizations such as Young Women Christian Organization (YWCA) which was operational in 1930. Second, there were the indigenous ethnic welfare associations. These were mainly involved in self-help activities mostly of which were confined to urban areas. The third were secular service providing NGOs especially after the World War II, e.g. war veterans associations and Kenya Farmers Association (KFA). Fourth, there existed occupational and professional bodies.

Then there is the period between 1963 and 1990. Prior to the 1990 NGO Act there was no specific institutional and legislative framework to govern the NGO sector. NGOs were registered under various laws such as the Company Act and the Trustees Act. In 1990 a survey conducted in the mid 1990s revealed that 75% of all registered NGOs were located in Nairobi¹⁹. Their administration was not clear prior to the 1990 NGO Act, but the government supported NGOs because they were largely seen as instruments to supplement the development programmes of the public sector. The overall growth between 1974 and 1988 is not clear (Fowler, 1988; Alice, 1997).

The development of NGOs in the 1980s and 1990s was phenomenal and appeared to be directly linked to the problems of: poverty, civil strife, conflicts, internal displacements, and

¹⁸ This right to freedom of association has further undergone cruel times in the post-colonial Kenya, for example, see, Kiai, M. "Freedom of Assembly true on paper only" People Daily (Nairobi) January 26, 1999, p.15

¹⁹ NGO Council (1996) "A proposal for the NGOs sector survey" NGO Council, Nairobi.

general degeneration of the socio-economic and political systems (NGO Council, 2000). By the end of the decade of the '80s, indigenous NGOs in Kenya had grown by over 150% in a period of ten years (Fowler and Rick, 2000). Reasons for this growth are as follows: government had failed to deliver the much-needed economic leadership; economic decline and market forces set a stage for NGOs to deal with these and take a way forward on matters affecting the lives of the people.; NGOs were formed as development agents; some NGOs were formed partly to take responsibility and push for socio-political change (these have repeatedly faced threats of deregistration.²⁰

The growth of NGOs in Kenya over the last quarter of the 20th century was enormous. For instance, NGOs registered a cumulative growth of over 100% between 1977 and 1987.²¹ By 1995 there were at least 23,000 women's organizations in the country.²² The NGOs that are registered by the NGO Coordination Bureau (under the office of the President) are at least 1441 compared to only 250 in 1993.²³ In the Kenyan context, activities of NGOs are so varied that it is unlikely that any one definition will include all NGOs. The government and the NGO community coined a definition they considered satisfactory. Under the NGO Coordination Act No. 19 of 1990, section 2, an NGO is defined to mean:

*"A private voluntary grouping of individuals or associations not operated for profit or for other commercial purposes but which have organized themselves nationally or internationally for the benefit of the public at large and for the promotion of social welfare development, charity or research in the areas inclusive but not restricted to health, relief, agriculture, education, industry and supply of amenities and services."*²⁴

The Act establishes a governmental agency and a self-regulatory agency to govern NGOs and their operations in Kenya. The self-regulatory agency is the Kenya National Council of NGOs established under section 23 of the Act.²⁵ It is mandated to ensure self-regulation of NGOs via a code of conduct and other regulation on such matters as activities, funding, foreign affiliations, national security, training and institutional building.

²⁰ See, Ndirangu, I et al (1990) "Errant NGOs to be struck off" Daily Nation (Nairobi) Friday, December 14, 1990

²¹ Fowler, A. (1988) "New Scrambles in Africa: Will they Constrain or Construct Southern NGOs?" Paper presented at the East African NOVIB Seminar, Nairobi, October 1888.

²² Commonwealth Foundation (1995) Non-Governmental Organizations: Guidelines for Good Policy and Practice Commonwealth Foundation, London, p.8

²³ Muiruri, D.W. (2000) Non-Governmental Organizations in Kenya: Improving the Regulatory Framework, Unpublished University of Nairobi, LL.B Dissertation

²⁴ This is by virtue of State Law (Miscellaneous Amendments) Act of 23 October 1992. Cf. the 1990 definition: NGO "means a private voluntary grouping of individuals or associations, not operated for profit or for other commercial purposes but which have organized themselves nationally or internationally for the promotion of social welfare development, charity or research through mobilization of resources".

²⁵ Herein referred to as the NGO Council.

Unlike Ethiopia, Kenya has more than 1000 NGOs.²⁶ These are vibrant and secure organizations that play a vital role in society. In the Kenyan context, there are compelling reasons for encouraging the activities of INGOs such as the government's failure to improve accountability and implement reforms lead by the IMF leading to non cancellation of Kenya's debt (Kamoche, 2002). These and other factors have contributed to economic stagnation, widespread poverty and reduced opportunities for industrial growth. Against this backdrop, the urge to secure and retain employment has been sharpened across the board, with the effect that the employer's hand has continued to be strengthened. This is the background in which the INGOs work and employ well qualified personnel that has been trained by the government. These organizations may mistreat employees because of the unemployment problem in the country (Kameri-Mbote, 2000). The main proponents of the move towards greater participation of these organizations base their arguments on the need to protect associational rights. But there are those that postulate the essential need to protect the public from the real and perceived abuses and frauds by unscrupulous organizations.

The main concerns are the operational environment and constraints for NGOs working in Kenya as Kameri-Mbote (2000) explains in her study. It is necessary to promulgate sensible laws, regulations and administrative systems. By drawing on various experiences on legal fiscal and regulatory structures around the world, she develops and proposes a set of recommendations and policy options that will permit, encourage and regulate the existence of NGOs in Kenya and their meaningful participation in the development process. This is important in view of the fact that there are problems faced by NGOs both local and international and this could affect effective management especially by expatriate managers. The operational environment of NGOs determines the effectiveness of programmes and projects undertaken by them.

One pressing problem is the dependence of local NGOs on INGOs through direct funding (Fowler and Rick, 2000) which results in lack of autonomy because donors' influence is normally a factor to contend with. The second problem is the interference of the government. In Kenya, NGOs are encouraged to collaborate with the government although the government is often critical of the high profile of NGOs advocacy campaigns especially against government policy.²⁷ Although there are some assurances from the government, NGOs and

²⁶ From Kenya National Council of Social Services (2004) Directory of NGOs in Nairobi, Kenya

²⁷ Daily Nation "NGOs warned on civic education at the coast" Daily Nation (Nairobi) February 16, 1999, p.4

the government are yet to perceive each other as partners/collaborators in a practical sense.²⁸ Another problem is that there is restriction of field of operation. Kituo cha Sheria (Law Society) and Kenya Human Rights Commission were fire-bombed six times; two human rights NGOs were banned and another of NGO meetings disrupted by police at times violently.²⁹ Both local and international non-governmental organizations are expected to operate in accordance to the laws that govern these organizations (Appendix IV: for Kenya laws).

2.1.7.2.2 Problems Faced by NGOs in Kenya

Like Ethiopia, the operations of NGOs in Kenya and other African countries are hampered by many factors (Kameri-Mbote, 2002:13). These have implications for NGO autonomy. Both external and internal environments impinge on NGO's performance and output. As expressed by Kameri-Mbote, the operational environment includes: Economics, donors-political-social-state departments-beneficiaries-Law –Founders. Under systems theory, organizations' behaviour pattern largely depends on the environment (both external and internal) in which they are operating. How NGOs as organizations are run or behave depends on for instance, political, economic and social conditions in the country. The donors, the founders and the beneficiaries will influence and drive the NGOs operations. The constraints are:

First, there is the "Lack of Autonomy". Kenyan NGOs, have over the years maintained links with their Northern counterparts. In 1988 approximately 10% of the external aid used by Kenyan NGOs was through direct funding. The rest (about 90%) was through Northern non-governmental organizations (Fowler and Rick, 2000). It is important to note that this type of NGO "dependency" is perceived as a threat to NGO autonomy and accountability to the public. Despite the mission and objectives of the NGOs, donors influence is normally a factor to contend with.

Second, there is "Government Interference". This involves advocacy, restriction of field of operation, and limited access to justice.

²⁸ Dr. Patricia Kameri-Mbote (2000) reminds us of success story of how the good relationship between NGOs and governments can be fruitful is the participation of Sierra Leone in work of the WTO's Committee on Trade and Environment (CTE) where the government of Sierra Leone was able to get necessary technical and human resource support from the NGO sector. Confer Chaytor, B (2000) "Cooperation between governments and NGOs: The Case of Sierra Leone in CTE" in Konz, P. et al (eds) (2000) Trade, Environment and Sustainable Development: Views from Sub Saharan Africa: A Reader United Nations University Institute of advanced studies, Tokyo

²⁹ Amnesty International (1995) Amnesty International Publications, London, pp. 195-198

1. NGOs and Governments

In Kenya, NGOs are encouraged to collaborate with the government although the government is often critical of the high profile of NGOs' advocacy campaigns especially against the government policy.³⁰ In spite of assurances, NGOs and the government are yet to perceive each other as partners/collaborators in a practical sense. For example, in the area of environmental governance, NGOs that have been involved in assessing the environmental impact of Government sponsored projects face hostility and threats.³¹ Therefore, although the NGO sector is guaranteed independence this appears yet to be realised in practice.

2. Restriction of Field of Operation

Kenyan NGOs are not permitted to engage in any political activities. Between January and December 1995 human rights and other policy-focused advocacy NGOs were harassed by persons believed to be acting for the government. In 1998 the government sent out a clear message to policy-focused NGOs that they were being closely monitored when it deregistered six NGOs soon after the 1998 bomb blast disaster in Nairobi for alleged involvement in the terrorist acts. The NGO council intervened and it emerged that the government could not substantiate its claims against the NGOs. They were reinstated (Kameri-Mbote, 2002:14)

3. Limited Access to Justice

Access to environmental justice is one of the fundamental norms required for the public to efficiently participate in decision making. In Kenya, access to the courts by NGOs is to a great extent curtailed (Ongewe, 2000).

Third, there is the "Absence of Internal Democratic Institutions in NGO Management". NGOs have also faced problems that may be their own making. Very few NGOs cultivate internal democratic institution and some have been accused of embezzling funds.³² Good management practices demand that obvious key management concepts and principles such as sustainability, accountability, transparency, which are necessary for institutional formal procedures, are put into place. However, excessive formal procedures may potentially reduce NGO efficiency and capacities, frameworks, cost effectiveness analysis (NGO Council, 2000). Balancing these concerns is a delicate issue which is not helped by the fact that donors are more interested in short-term, output oriented project methodologies regardless of the management structure of an NGO.

³⁰ Daily Nation "NGOs warned on civic education at the coast" Daily Nation (Nairobi) February 16, 1999, p. 4

³¹ Radoli, M. "Project critics anger leaders" Daily Nation (Nairobi) March 4, 2000, p.16

³² This is based on various issues of newspaper reports

1. Administrative Efficiency or Inefficiency of NGOS

While a number of NGOs have achieved administrative efficiency, most have major difficulties here. Efficiency cannot be guaranteed because of the nature of NGOs themselves. It all depends on whether one can write convincingly to donors (Alice, 1997). When donor priorities determine funding there is a danger of public corralling the voluntary sector, whether or not NGO services are welcome by the poor. This has two main risks: It may deflect NGOs from their chosen functions and/or bring the whole sector into disrepute (Clayton, 1999).

2. Sustainability

NGOs have difficulties in achieving sustainability and replicability in their projects. Sustainability describes the ability of a given project to remain viable after external support is terminated. Does the NGO have: a clear vision and mission, finances, human resources capabilities in the organization, and managerial skills especially management style. By and large, NGOs' concerns are of a short-term nature (Fowler and Rick, 2000). This does not augur well for continuity and sustainability.

3. Accountability

There are also problems of accountability in some NGOs. Despite what some think of corruption in governments, there is also fraud in the private sector and NGOs are not above corruption (Kameri-Mbote, 2000). At times cost effectiveness is not prioritized. One of the most asked questions is: To whom are NGO leaders accountable? Many feel that NGOs should be accountable to their benefactors while others think that they should be directly answerable to the people they serve (Muiruri, 2000). NGOs should be accountable to the government. This accountability would facilitate compliance with provisions of accountancy laws, NGO regulations and their equivalent. The bottom line is that publicly contributed funds require rigorous accountability to protect both the donor and the recipient. Towards this end the NGO council has produced relevant guidelines for presentation of audited accounts.³³

Fourth, another factor is "Financial Resources". Dwindling financial resources constitute another problem for Kenyan NGOs. It is largely due to: Global economic recession, and

³³ NGO Council "Recommended accounting and audit practices (SORAAPS) for NGOs" Daily Nation (Nairobi) June 29, 1999, p.20

political transformation – the geopolitics of the North and foreign policy³⁴. The most visible effects of this problem include reduction of services and the demise of weak NGOs. This could however provide an opportunity for NGOs to review their mission and goals and engender sustainability in their programmes of work. Dependence on Northern NGOs for support largely because of competition of funds is not sustainable in the long run and may result in duplication of roles as different NGOs place themselves strategically to receive resources from their northern allies (Fowler, 2000).

2.1.7.2.3 Summary of Regulatory System for NGOs in Kenya

In July 2006, the Ministry of National Heritage presented Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2006 to the Kenyan Parliament. The Sessional Paper, which subsequently was passed by the Parliament, seeks to, inter alia: promote interaction between NGOs and the communities where they work in an effort to improve service delivery; integrate government and NGO policies to affect the “social and economic transformation” of Kenya; and involve the individual in NGO and government affairs. What follows are some of the regulatory systems for NGOs.

Accountability and accounting: NGOs are required to declare bank account details in their annual Reports and to report any changes in address or changes in officers to the NGO Board. NGOs must also submit an Annual Return to the NGOs Board by 31 May each year. The National Council of NGOs has produced a Code of Conduct for NGOs to promote compliance with minimum ethical and governance standards.

Preventing and Investigating Abuse: Government and sector representatives share the responsibility for regulating the sector in Kenya. NGO Co-ordination Act (1990) provided for the creation for the creation of a self-regulatory body for NGOs –The National Council of NGOs – alongside the government oversight body – The NGOs Co-ordination Board. The Council oversees adherence with a Code of Conduct. Its regulatory Committee sits periodically and acts as a tribunal. It can hear complaints, dismiss complaints, issue a warning to an organization, recommend (to the NGO Co-ordination Board) that a certificate is cancelled or suspended, recommend an organization take appropriate action against an

³⁴ People all over the world are beginning to doubt the effectiveness of NGOs. Even the world bank that spearheaded the shift of official funding from governments to NGOs is concerned that people do not trust NGOs. Confer Daily Nation “Are NGOs essential for Kenya’s growth” Daily Nations (Nairobi) November 20, 1999, p.6

employee/member/agent, remove or bar person from holding office in the Council for 5 years (NGO Council, 1995).

Regulation Relating to Income:

Tax exemptions: Kenya exempts from corporate income taxes the income of certain NGOs carrying out specific types of activities. Unrelated business income is subject to tax under certain circumstances.

Fundraising: There are no special rules controlling receipt of funding from overseas. Many NGOs rely on overseas donors and base their programmes on availability of donor funds. Local initiatives are encouraging NGOs to be more self-reliant, to look for funding locally and creatively diversify funding streams. Public charitable collections or “Harambees” are allowed in Kenya. They must be conducted in compliance with the provisions of the Public Collections Act and the regulations made there under. Licensing authority for Harambees is the Provincial Administration.

This detailed review of literature on International HRM focusing on global staffing, HRM in developing countries and NGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia has given the background and context from which expatriate managers in INGOs will find themselves. These expatriate managers have to learn to adjust not only to the environment, but to their work and subordinates. The sections that follow will review literature on expatriate adjustment in relation to culture and leadership. This will enable us to identify the gap in knowledge.

Part 2: Adjustment, Culture and Leadership

2.2 Expatriate Adjustment

One vital aspect in International Human Resource Management (IHRM) is the assignment of employees by organizations to operations abroad. Tung (1991) investigates four categories of overseas job assignment; chief executive officers, who oversee operations; structure reproducers or functional heads, who establish departments in foreign affiliates; trouble shooters; and elements, who are lower –level members of the organization. These expatriates accept these assignments with the hope that they will be successful. As is the case in domestic employee management, expatriate management in the international domain should be concerned primarily with the performance and well-being of the expatriate (Ayman, 1997).

Therefore, most conceptual models ultimately aim at predicting expatriate performance and adjustment (Black, Mendenhall and Oddou, 1991; Aycan, 1997; Selmer 2001; Sanchez, 2000; Lee, 2005). The focus of this study is expatriate adjustment and this review will critically evaluate major issues, theories, and relevant questions and problems. It will start by defining expatriate adjustment; evaluate proposed models and factors influencing adjustment.

2.2.1 Definition

Despite the fact that adjustment is a critical concept in expatriate management literature, there are problems associated with its definition and conceptualization (Church, 1982). Adjustment and adaptation have been used interchangeably to indicate a feeling of acceptance and satisfaction (Brislin, 1988), acquisition of culturally acceptable skills and behaviours (Bochner, Mcleod and Lin, 1977), the nature and the extent of interaction with host nationals (Sewell and Davidsen, 1961) or the lack of mental health as stress and depression (Berry and Kim, 1988). Conceptual distinctions between adaptation and adjustment should be made. During acculturation, one may choose to adapt to the new environment but may not be able to adjust to the culture, the people and work. Therefore, various definitions of expatriate adjustment proposed need explanation.

Black and Gregerson (1991:463) define expatriate adjustment as “the degree of psychological comfort with various aspects of a host country”. In this case, psychological refers to subjective wellbeing or mood states (e.g. absence of depression, anxiety, tensions and fatigue). This definition is based on a problem orientated view focusing on attitudinal factors of the adjustment process. A similar definition of adjustment is proposed by Berry (1992:73) as a “state whereby changes occur in the individual in a direction of increased fit and reduced conflict between the environmental demands and the individual attitudinal and behavioural inclinations”. Another definition is given by Aycan (1997a: 2) who conceptualizes adjustment as the degree of fit between the expatriate and the environment, both work and socio-cultural. Socio-cultural adjustment relates to the ability to “fit in” or to negotiate interactive aspects of the host culture as measured by the amount to difficulty explained in the management of everyday situations in the host culture (Ward and Kennedy, 1996). It is based on cultural learning theory and highlights social behaviour and practical social skills underlying attitudinal factors (Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Furnham, 1993)

Jun et al (1997) suggests that behavioural changes (socio-cultural adjustment) may have been adopted involuntarily due to existing circumstances while attitudinal changes (psychological adjustment) are likely to be more voluntary. Furnham and Bochner (1986) suggest a similar argument, by proposing that the expatriate manager does not necessarily have to undergo a basic shift in deeply held values to conform to a new set of cultural norms abroad. It is sufficient merely to learn new social and cultural skills which can be discarded later when they are no longer useful. In our specific context of expatriation, adjustment is conceptualized as the degree of fit between the expatriate manager and the new environment in both work and non work domain. Such a fit is marked by reduced conflict and increased effectiveness. Emerging from the various definitions are models and theories of adjustment that point to expatriate's success in adjustment and performance. The next section covers these models and theories that are relevant to this study.

2.2.2. Models and Theories

In the past three decades, IHRM scholars have developed theoretical models that help explain the factors involved in effectively adjusting to overseas assignments (Black et al. 1991; Selmer, 1997, 2000). Despite the research interest in the determinants and effects of expatriate adjustment, a clear understanding of the adjustment process remains elusive given a range of competing models (e.g. Ayman, 1997; Black et al 1991; Forster, 1992). In addition, a number of studies show diversity in the attitudinal and contextual variables investigated, for example, studies on personality characteristics and adjustment (Church 1982), job characteristics, and psychological contract fulfillment (Florkowski and Fogel, 1999). The one element, if any, which unites virtually all of this literature, is an underlying assumption that adjustment or performance problems are "owned" by the expatriate not by the headquarters IHRM staff. To illustrate, Maruyama (1992), asserts that adjustment failures tend to be attributed to cultural insensitivity, citing US and Japanese expatriates as examples. They want to preserve their social identity (Richards, 1996). What is important to note is that adjustment is a process that is achieved in stages through experience. This is well illustrated by the U-curve theory of adjustment.

2.2.2.1 U-curve theory of Adjustment

The degree of adjustment viewed subjectively is the degree of comfort the individual feels in the new role and the degree to which he or she feels adjusted to the role requirements. Objectively, it is the degree to which the individual has mastered the role requirements and is

able to demonstrate that adjustment is via his or her performance (Black, 1988: 278). An important aspect of the degree of adjustment to the culture is the stage of adjustment. Scholars (Lysgaard, 1950; Oberg, 1960; Torbion 1982; Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Usunier 1998; Sanchez et al, 2000; Lee, 2005) have argued that adjustment occurs in four phases often referred to as the U-curve. The honeymoon stage occurs during the first few weeks after arrival at the host country. At this time the new arrivals are fascinated by the new and different aspects of the foreign culture and country. According to Torbion (1982) the individuals have not had sufficient time and experience in the new country and discover that many of their habits and behaviours are inappropriate in the new culture. The newness of the foreign culture and the lack of negative feedback combine to produce the honeymoon effect.

When the new comers start to cope with the real conditions on the daily basis, the second stage begins –culture shock. The stage is characterized by frustration and hostility towards the host country and its people. It is frustrating because of the discovery that past behaviour are inappropriate in the new culture but new habits have not yet been learned to substitute for their stead (Lee, 2005:274). The third stage is the adjustment stage in which the individual gradually adapts to the new norms and values of the host country and can act more appropriately than before. The individual acquires some language skills and ability to move around on his or her own. At this stage, the individual also has developed some proficiency in performing the new set of behaviours (Selmer 2001). Finally, is the mastery stage in which the individual is able to effectively function in the new culture. The individual now knows and can properly perform the necessary behaviours to function effectively and without anxiety due to cultural differences (Black and Mendenhall, 1990). In this study, we examine the motives and behaviour of the expatriate manager at this mastery stage and the cultural practices, values, and leadership behaviours that are preferred by Kenya and Ethiopia. What follows is a model of expatriate acculturation that involves the host and parent units in the process.

2.2.2.2 The Model of Expatriate Acculturation

Aycan (1999) proposes a model of expatriate acculturation guided by the acculturation framework of Berry (1997). Phase one involves “pre departure preparation” by the parent country, local unit and expatriate manager. The role of organizations both parent and local in managing expatriates is critical especially in the preparation and initial contact phases. It is followed by the second phase which is characterized by the “post-arrival initial contact”

between the expatriate and the new socio-cultural environment. In the next phase, acculturation experiences (i.e. conflicts, uncertainties, problems and acceptance by local nationals) are identified and appraised as either stressful events or fruitful opportunities for personal and professional growth. In this third stage, appraisal is followed by coping. Finally Psychological (e.g. stress and alienation) and adjustment (e.g. general and work related) outcomes of appraisal and coping are observed.

In the later stages of acculturation, organizational involvement in the acculturation process is only indirect, because the way in which coping and reactions to acculturation experiences occur depends on the expatriate's resourcefulness and attitudes (Berry, 1997). In this model, the impact of organizational level predictors on expatriate behaviour is suggested, which is commonly the case in organizational cross-level theories (Klein, Dansereau, and Hall, 1994). To sum up, expatriate management practices by organizations are expected to have repercussions on the nature of expatriate acculturation experiences which, in turn, determine adjustment and performance outcomes. The next section discusses the criteria of adjustment that used in the study.

2.2.2.3 Criteria: Adjustment and Performance

There is need for agreement as to the criteria for evaluating "expatriate successes".

Unfortunately, there is lack of consensus among researchers on this matter. One way is to examine what organizations demand of their expatriates (Forster, 1997). There are two major concerns for MNCs and INGOs when they send their employees abroad: (1) whether or not the expatriate will complete the full term of the assignment, and (2) Whether or not he or she will perform well on the job. The first question is directly related to the issue of adjustment, because those expatriates who fail to adjust to the new culture are the ones who will terminate the assignment prematurely. Therefore, the two most critical criteria of "expatriate success" are adjustment and performance.

It is important to realize that it is not enough for expatriates to be well adjusted if they do not perform adequately in their work, consequently, expatriates with high performance are not likely to complete the assignment if they have severe adjustment problems (Lee, 2005; Selmer, 2002). Despite the importance attached to international assignments failure to complete the full cycle of the assignment and /or working effectively on the job is still a major problem for multinational organizations. Some of the reasons are; first, the premature return from international assignments and / or marginal job performance by expatriates cost

MNCs in terms of finances (Coperland and Griggs, 1985), damaged company reputation, lost business opportunities, and lost market or competitive share (Black and Gregersen, 1991; Naumann, 1992). Second retention failure is as harmful to the expatriate as it is to the parent and host companies, because it causes loss of self esteem, self-confidence and prestige among co-workers (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Tung 1987; Forster 1997). Third, as an unsuccessful period of expatriation is likely to decrease the subsequent commitment to the parent firm (Naumann, 1993) and job performance upon reputation (Adler, 1981). Fourth, the expatriate managers' failure has an adverse impact on the decision of other qualified managers to accept overseas posts (Stroh, 1995, Lee, 2005).

In realization of problems associated with expatriate adjustment and performance, research in the last three decades has been to determine the causes of high failure rates and inadequate job performance (Aycan, 1999: 2). There are two significant weaknesses of the typical research, first, expatriation is usually examined as an "individual level" phenomenon by putting an overwhelming emphasis on expatriate characteristics as predictors of adjustment. It is important to note, however, that expatriation is a multifaceted phenomenon which is influenced by both the expatriate managers' competencies (e.g. technical, managerial and diplomatic skills, etc) as well as organizational approaches to expatriation (preparation, planning, training and support, etc). Research on IHRM practices (e.g. Brewster, 1988; Brewster and Pickard, 1994; Kopp, 1994; Tung 1987; Jackson, 2004; Schuler et al 2002) show that expatriates of European-based companies are generally more successful in overseas assignments than their American counterparts mainly due to their engagement in more extensive preparation and training activities and stronger support networks available to expatriates.

From this observation, Aycan (1997a), points out that the real issue is success of the expatriate process not the expatriate manager. This makes it necessary to take individual as well as organizational level predictors in our research and practice. Secondly, expatriates experience a process of acculturation which brings about a number of cognitive, affective and behavioural changes as a result of first-hand contact with a new cultural context (Redfield, Linton and Herskovits, 1936). This process, however, has not been captured by theoretical and empirical work in expatriate management. Some of the attempts to capture this are dealt with in sections that follow.

2.2.2.4 Dimensions of Adjustment

Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) argue that the degree of expatriate adjustment should be treated as a multidimensional concept rather than a unitary phenomenon as was the dominating view previously (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1962, Oberg, 1960). In their proposed model for international adjustment they made a distinction between three dimensions of in-country adjustment: (1) adjustment to work; (2) adjustment to interacting with host nationals and (3) adjustment to the general non-work environment. This theoretical framework of international adjustment covers socio-cultural aspects of adjustment.

In their comprehensive model (Black et al, 1991), argue that expatriate adjustment includes two components: anticipatory adjustment and in-country adjustment. Anticipatory adjustment can have an important positive impact on in-country adjustment. It is positively influenced by cross cultural training and previous international experience. These help build up accurate expectations and the more accurate the expatriates' expectations, the lower the level of uncertainty, the fewer the surprises and the lower the level of culture shock.

Adjustment theorists (Ashford and Taylor 1990; Brett, 1980; Louis, 1980) have argued that accurate expectations will in general facilitate adjustment to the actual circumstances. The reason for this is that accurate expectations reduce the chance of surprises and their associated uncertainty. Thus, we would expect accurate work expectations to have their most positive relationship with in-country work, while accurate interaction expectations to have their most positive relationship with in-country interaction expatriate adjustment; and accurate general expectations to have positive relationship with general environment expatriate adjustment.

2.2.2.5 A Multidimensional Phenomenon

This concept has been proposed by a number of researchers (Black et al, 1991, Black and Gregersen, 1990; McEvoy and Parker, 1995; Aycan, 1997; Florkowski and Fogel, 1999; Forster, 2000; Selmer, 2001). Aycan (1997) proposes a conceptual model that identifies critical antecedents of expatriate adjustment. She conceptualizes adjustment as the degree of fit between the expatriate and the environment, both work and socio-cultural. As a multidimensional phenomenon, she identifies expatriate adjustment in psychological, socio-cultural and work dimensions. Her model depicts that psychological and socio-cultural adjustment are the most immediate predictors of work adjustment. She asserts that the success of the expatriate process depends not only on the expatriate manager' competencies and skills,

but also on organizational (both parent company and local unit) support and assistance prior to and during the assignment.

In the past two decades, IHRM scholars have developed theoretical models that help explain the factors involved in effectively adjusting to overseas assignments (Black et al. 1991). Despite the research interest in the determinants and effects of expatriate adjustment, a clear understanding of the adjustment process remains elusive given a range of competing models (e.g. Aycan, 1997; Black et al 1991; Foster, 1992). Furthermore, a number of studies show diversity in the attitudinal and contextual variables investigated, for example, studies on personality characteristics and adjustment (Church 1982), job characteristics, and psychological contract fulfilment (Florkowski and Fogel 1999).

The theoretical concept of subjective well being, corresponding to the psychological aspects of expatriate adjustment, has been well developed, especially in relation to work and work environment characteristics (Caplan et al. 1975; Karasek, 1979; Kornhauser, 1965; Caliguiri, 1997; Selmer, 2000). In connection with the expatriate managers adjustment, the concept of subjective well-being has been applied in several instances (Arnetz, 1992; Aryee and Stone, 1996; Nicholson and Imaizumi, 1993). In general, an investigation of the psychological, socio-cultural and work dimensions will identify determinants of successful expatriate adjustment revealed in the models.

2.2.3 Determinants of Expatriate Adjustment

Considering the various theoretical models (Black et al, 1991; Shaffer et al, 1999; Aycan, 1997; Selmer, 2004, etc) there are a number of factors that have been found to determine successful expatriate adjustment. Black et al's, (1991) model was tested by Shaffer et al (2000) introducing two moderating variables, previous assignment and language fluency. The model consisted of the following determinants of expatriate adjustment: Job factors which include role clarity, role discretion; Organizational factors include supervisor support, co-worker support and logistical support; Non-work factors comprise culture novelty and spouse adjustment; while individual factors include achievement self efficacy and social self efficacy. Other researchers have researched factors key to successful adjustment, these are; organizational factors (selection methods, expectations of the expatriate and support before, during and after assignment) and individual factors (personality traits, openness and motivation for assignment and cross cultural adjustment) among others (Varma and Stroh, 2001; Selmer, 2004; Forster, 1992; Florkowski and Fogel, 1999).

To function effectively in the host culture, knowledge of the culture is necessary. Previous cross-cultural experience has been shown to be related to successful adjustment (Church, 1982; Searle and Ward, 1985). Expatriates themselves report that previous cross-cultural experiences help them in the process of adjustment in subsequent adjustments (Brewster, 1991). Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) predicts that the individual, during previous cross-cultural experiences, acquires skills to cope with uncertainties through observation, modelling and reinforcement. Sanchez et al, (1996), also emphasize the importance of not ignoring culturally critical aspects in each stage of the adjustment process.

Finally, from these conclusions and literature on expatriate adjustment, the parent organization's approach towards expatriation is asserted as one of the major determinants of overseas success (Selmer, 2002). An NGO's international structure, orientation towards globalization and stage in the organizational life cycle, are expected to determine the strategic goal of the assignment and the role of the expatriate. In turn, these will have an impact on the value attached to an expatriate's international experience and the quality of the pre-departure training. Congruence among organizational determinants (i.e. structure, value orientation and stage in the life cycle), strategic goal(s) of the assignment and the operational planning (selection, training and performance appraisal) increases the likelihood of expatriate success (Aycan, 1997).

This study examines the psychological dimension considering motives and behaviour in the adjustment process. It also examines expatriates personality traits suitable for adjustment, cross cultural training, culture and expatriate behaviour as some of the factors influencing expatriate adjustment. Since the expatriates come from cultures different from the host nation, their values, attitudes and behaviour are shaped by that cultural environment. Therefore, an examination of cultural differences is essential in understanding expatriate manager's adjustment. The cross cultural approach considers the cultural dimensions of both the parent and host nation.

2.3 The Cross-cultural Approach

2.3.1 Culture: Definition

Undertaking "cross cultural" research means to put "culture" in the centre of interest.

There are over 160 definitions of “culture” alone as documented by Kroeber et al (1985) and a great deal of new material has been published since then. Hofstede (1991:5) describes culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another. To recognize culture, we have to ask; “how do we see us, and how do others see us”? We only begin to perceive our culture when we are out of it, confronted with another. Culture serves as a lens through which we perceive the other. Like the water surrounding the fish, culture distorts how we see the world and how the world sees us (Shneider and Barsourx, 1997). Furthermore, we tend to use our own culture as a reference point to evaluate the other. What is normal or of value to us may not be to another.

A recent study by the GLOBE project³⁵ defines culture as “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meaning of significant events that result from experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations” (House et al, 2004:15). In their study of culture and leadership, their objective was to compare a large sample of societies on dimensions of culture which are cross-culturally valid. Because of the need for culture specific analysis it is important to use a definition that addresses culture specific aspects. Redfield (1948) defines culture as “shared understanding made manifest in act and artifact’. The GLOBE dimensions of cultural practices represent perceptions of acts or of “the way things are done in a culture”, and dimensions of cultural values are human made artifacts in the sense of judgments about “the way things should be done”. This investigation of cultural practices and values done separately and simultaneously by GLOBE is new in cross-cultural research. A closer look at GLOBE is necessary since it is one of the anchors of this research.

2.3.2 Critique of GLOBE

Among other works, the general framework of this study is anchored by the GLOBE Project, phase 1 and 2 (House et al, 2004), and Phase 3 (Chhokar, Brodbeck and House, 2007). What follows is a critical review of the project. The rationale for why it was chosen for looking at culture and leadership in the context of expatriate managers and their immediate subordinates in INGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia will be discussed in chapter four.

³⁵ More detailed information is available on GLOBE’s public we site at <http://www.turnerbird.edu/wwwfiles/ms/globe/>

2.3.2.1 Overview of the GLOBE Project

GLOBE is the acronym for “Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness”, a world wide, multiphase, multi-method research project involving 62 societies around the world. Over 160 social scientists and management scholars representing all major regions of the world were engaged in this programmatic series of cross cultural leadership studies (House et al, 2004:6). The researchers measured culture at different levels with both practices and values. They tested 27 hypotheses that linked culture to interesting outcomes. The GLOBE findings are based on surveys of over 17,300 middle managers in the banking, food processing and telecommunication industries in 951 organizations. In the mid-1990s, participating managers were asked to report their perceptions of the cultural practices and values in their countries (ibid, pg. 8). They measured the variables with cultural sensitivity, developing instruments in consultation with members of relevant cultures. By using focus groups, and by heavy dependence on the previous literature, the investigators developed instruments that tapped local meaning that were appropriate for each level of the data and also had equivalence across cultures (Grove, 2005).

The overview of the project situates us in cross-cultural research with specific reference to culture and leadership. The rationale of the GLOBE Project and the methodology used are explained in chapter four, in the next section we discuss the strengths and weaknesses of measuring cultures. Clearly, we are only providing with a few highlights given the enormous work of the Project in two volumes. Reasons for choosing it as an anchor to the study of expatriates, in INGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia are explained in chapter 4.

2.3.2.2 Strengths and Weaknesses of Measuring Cultures

GLOBE culture and leadership questionnaire contained items that measured organizational culture, societal culture, and culturally endorsed leadership attributes. In generating the leadership items, their focus was on developing a comprehensive list of leader attributes and behaviours rather than on developing a priori scales. The initial pool of leadership items was based on leader behaviours and attributes described in several extant leadership theories (House and Aditya, 1997). These leadership items consisted of behavioural and attribute descriptors.

Firstly, the discussion on measuring cultures was centred on the generalizations the GLOBE researchers could make about societal culture and its influence on organizational culture and

practices, and on implicit leadership theories prevalent in the culture (House et al, 2004, p. 9). To the extent that the measuring instruments contain items that are not behaviour specific, they minimize the risk of non-equivalence of measures across the cultures studied (House et al, 2004; Chhokar et al, 2007). Even so, they recognize the fact that two cultures with the same levels of a cultural dimension may exhibit different behaviours associated with that dimension. This aspect is well expounded by d'Iribane (1997), culture specific behaviours are difficult to interpret from outside a culture. He emphasizes the distinction between “knowing” a culture and “internalizing” a culture.

Limitation: Although GLOBE provides a profile of cultural dimensions for each society, it does not present a behavioural profile. Further research is required to build an in-depth understanding of how people actually function and manifest different cultural attributes.

Secondly, the current cross cultural literature, influenced by Hofstede's (1980) seminal work, has been focused on cultures as a collection of cultural dimensions. Much has been written on the various dimensions and their implications (Hofstede, 1980; 1991; Inglehart, 1997; Schwartz, 1999 etc.). GLOBE has introduced several new dimensions and has studied each dimension individually.

Limitation: We suggest that no particular set of cultural dimensions is all encompassing or exhaustive. There are of course new dimensions that researchers could study. Cultures are obviously very complex multidimensional phenomena that extend beyond any particular box of categories. But an even more important issue is that our cross cultural understanding will be substantially enhanced by taking a holistic view of cultures. Cultures are not a set of independent self-standing dimensions, but instead are formed as a confluence of cultural attributes (House et al, 2004, p. 97).

Thirdly, although it is easier to study each dimension, such an approach leaves many questions unanswered. As House et al, (2004, p. 98-101) ask: “How do different cultural dimensions interact? What is the relative importance of each dimension in understanding each culture? Which cultural dimensions, if any, should be attended to most in different cultures? What is the impact of different bundles of cultural dimensions? Which combination of dimensions should be studied in each culture?”

Limitation: In short, although the current literature informs us about the different cultural strands, it fails to shed light on the cultural fabric. Therefore, what GLOBE findings can do for us is to help us pave the way for new thinking and analysis to move us in this direction.

Fourthly, one final point about measuring cultures is that in the GLOBE finding there is a negative correlation between cultural values and practices in seven out of nine cultural dimensions (ibid. p.xv-xix). As a typical example, cultures with high values on a dimension are likely to exhibit low practices. This is contrary to the conventional wisdom in literature as earlier explained. Much of the writing on culture suggests implicitly or explicitly that cultural practices are driven by cultural values and that there is a linear and positive relationship between them (Hofstede, 1980; Schien, 1992).

One potential explanation of GLOBE findings is that they are an artefact of the questionnaire design. Perhaps the simple act of asking the respondents about “As Is” and “Should Be” cultural items triggers this type of response because people usually want more than they have, particularly if the element is positive (e.g. pay). It is not clear why the relationship should be negative rather than positive. In general, it is unclear whether a high or low level of any dimension is necessarily desirable (Grove, 2004, p.4). Considering the measures to be used the researchers had to choose an appropriate methodology for the Project.

2.3.3 Cultural Practices and Values

Middle managers who participated in the GLOBE study responded to questionnaire items on practices and values within a country. Practices are concerned with “what is” or “what are” common behaviours, institutional practices, proscriptions and prescriptions in their society (termed “As Is” dimensions). They represented the way things were currently done in a culture. Values expressed in response to the same questionnaire items in the form of judgments of “what should be” common behaviours, institutional practices, proscriptions and prescriptions (termed “should Be” dimensions). They reflected the respondents’ desire and aspirations in terms of the way things should be done (Javidan et al, 2004). Both sets of measures have been validated (e.g. by establishing convergent and discriminant validity) on the country level of analysis with different sets of data outside GLOBE (Gupta, De Luque & House, 2004) and with societal value data from prior cross-cultural studies (Hanges and Dickson, 2004)

The double nature of these dimensions is of particular relevance. On each dimension a society is positioned in terms of both its cultural practices (“As Is –scores) and its cultural values (“Should Be” –scores). Cultural practices data tells us something about the current perceptions of each culture. Cultural values tap the respondents’ feelings about their cultural aspirations and the direction the respondents want their culture to develop in the future. In

short, the “Should be” scores can be used to estimate cultural visions and the desire of a culture for change (House et al, 2004). If two cultures have different cultural practices (As Is) but similar values (Should Be), that latter agreement should make knowledge transfer by expatriates easier than it would otherwise. Emphasizing similarities in cultural values is a good managerial strategy to minimize the potentially negative consequences of the “As Is” differences for the success of expatriate adjustment (Javidan et al, 2004).

Considerable attention has been paid to the relationship of national cultural values to the skills of managers and management practices (Hofstede, 1975, 1980, 1991; Schneider, 1989; Jaeger 1990; Jackson, 2002; Schuler et al, 2002; House et al, 2004). Recognizing cultural differences is the necessary step to anticipating potential threats and opportunities for foreign business and other encounters. But in order to go beyond awareness and to create useful interactions, these differences need to be open to discussion. Culture consists of values, attitudes and norms (Schneider, 1989). Values determine how an individual will probably respond in any given circumstance and it is a powerful component of a society’s culture. Culture has a highly pervasive influence on the behaviour of individuals (Forster, 2000). A person’s perceptions, attitudes, motivations, values, learning experiences and personality are all, to a very large extent, shaped by culture (Forster, 2000: 2). Some frameworks for understanding how basic values underlie organizational behaviour is proposed by Hofstede (1980) and House et al (2004).

Societal Culture

Hofstede (1980), conducted research from 1967 to 1978 to develop a commonly acceptable, well defined and empirically based terminology to describe cultures. The result of his research on more than 116,000 people in 50 countries was a proposal of four dimensions of national culture. He describes national culture in four different criteria or dimensions: Power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and masculinity. Hofstede’s work is widely influential in many studies exploring cultural dimensions. Nevertheless, we have to be cautious when interpreting his results because his findings were based on a sample from one multinational firm, IBM, and because he does not account for within country differences in multi-cultural countries (Jaeger, 1986).

House et al (2004) in their study aimed at examining the interrelationships between societal culture, organizational culture and practices and organizational leadership. They found

additional dimensions to those of Hofstede. These include: performance orientation, humane orientation, future orientation, gender egalitarianism, and assertiveness. The nine core cultural dimensions are defined in detailed in (House et al, 2004:11-13). In table 2.1 a brief definition of these cultural dimensions³⁶ is given.

Table 2.1: Cultural Dimensions

Cultural Dimensions Definitions
Power Distance: The degree to which the members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally
Uncertainty Avoidance: The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies on social norms, rules and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events.
Humane Orientation: The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to others
Collectivism I:(Institutional Collectivism) The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.
Collectivism II: (In-Group Collectivism) The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in their organization or families.
Assertiveness: The degree to which individuals are assertive, dominant and demanding in their relationships with others
Gender Egalitarianism: The degree to which a collective minimizes gender inequality.
Future Orientation: The extent to which a collective encourages future-orientated behaviours such as delaying gratification, planning and investing in the future.
Performance Orientation: The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.

(Formulated from: House et al, 2004, pg.15)

In constructing these dimensions GLOBE made use of previous research on culture. Uncertainty Avoidance, Power distance, Institutional Collectivism, In-Group Collectivism, and Gender Egalitarianism and Assertiveness have their origins in the dimensions of culture identified by Hofstede (1980). In-Group Collectivism has its roots in Triandis (1995) reflecting the degree to which people have pride and loyalty in their families and organizations. The Institutional Collectivism dimension has not been studied in prior research. Gender Egalitarianism and Assertiveness were developed from Hofstede's discussion of masculinity dimension. Future Orientation is derived from Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) Past, Present and Future Orientation dimension, which focuses on the temporal orientation of most people in society. This dimension has similarities with Hofstede's Confucian Work Dynamism (Hofstede and Bond, 1988), later referred to as Long-Term Orientation in Hofstede (2001). Performance Orientation was derived from McClelland

³⁶ These definitions are found in Hose et al (2004, pp. 11-13). These nine cultural attributes were identified by analyzing the responses by middle managers. When quantified these cultural attributes are referred to as cultural dimensions and serve as independent variables of Project GLOBE.

(1961) work on need for achievement. Although McClelland's measures the need for achievement, GLOBE tests the assumption that their measure predicts societal-level outcome variables such as economic performance.

Human Orientation has its roots in Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) dimension entitled Human Nature as Good versus Human Nature as Bad, as well as Putnam's (1993) work on civic society and McClelland's (1985) conceptualization of the affiliative motive.

Uncertainty Avoidance has a long history of discussion in the organizational behaviour literature but was conceptualized by Cyert and March (1963) as an organizational attribute.

Power Distance was initially conceived of by Mulder (1971) as a measure of power difference between superiors and subordinates. Later Hofstede (1980) used power distance and uncertainty avoidance to the societal level of analysis.

These dimensions of culture are a step to cultural awareness which is recognizing and accepting differences in other cultures as indicated by the aforementioned studies. The assumption underlying this step is that in order to appreciate the differences in other cultures, expatriate managers must understand their own culture. By educating them to understand their own values, they can better identify contrasts with other cultures and then apply these insights gained to improving cross cultural interactions (Bennett, 1988; Lee, 2005). Expatriate managers and their families should not only learn about their ranking as a nation on the general dimensions of cultural behaviour, but also gain a heightened awareness of more specific values influencing their behaviour. For example, outstanding differences that separate Americans from the rest of the world concern problems of ; pace (time is money), work attitudes (if there is a "will" there is a way), relationships (individual vs group), Power (who is in charge) (Coperland and Griggs, 1985, Shaffer et al, 2006).

2.3.5 Culture Specific Considerations

African Culture

In order to understand prevailing management practices in organizations in Africa today several aspects of traditional culture and how these have been modified by external influences over the years are revisited (Kiggundu, 1991:32). The culture general dimensions can help us compare cultures and find similarities and differences but expatriate managers also need some salient aspects of a country's culture. African traditional values of which are found in Kenya and Ethiopia include:

1. Respect for elders. The head and the elders authority was accepted by virtue of their age hence wisdom
2. The community was consensus loving, meetings were held to make decisions of communal importance. Similarly, in the organizational situation consensus is highly valued and decision making within levels can therefore take along time (Blunt and Jones, 1997) In traditional African society, each community was concerned with affairs of its own community whereas this is somewhat changing today with global issues.
3. Traditional superstitious believing that sickness, death and other unpleasant phenomena were caused either by evil spirits or ancestral spirits as punishment for wrong doing (Taylor, 1974).
4. Identity and loyalty to ones group: collective societies (Hofstede, 1993), as result wealth in the African society if first extended family or clan wealth and often it can be acquired legitimately at the expense of the organization (Dia, 1994). Evidence can be found in Kenya and Ethiopia (Kamoche, 2002; Mekonnen and Mamman, 2003)
5. Communalism and cooperation: “A thumb working on its own is useless” highlights the collective nature of African society, individuals belong to community (Nzelibe, 1986; Ayittey, 2005). In organizational African culture influences organizational culture, management styles and attitudes towards these.
6. Traditionalism: this encompasses adherence to accepted customs, beliefs and practices that determine accepted behaviour, morality and desired characteristics pf the individual society (Nyambegera, 2000).

There aspects of traditional culture can be applied to different societies in Africa but for the purpose of our study only Kenya and Ethiopia are considered.

Offodile and Beugre (2001:536) in their study consider cultural patterns by distinguishing between values and patterns. Cultural values are elements of a given society that people consider important, give credit to and strive to achieve. Cultural habits, however, are patterns of behaviours observed in a culture that are not necessarily valued, because they are not considered acceptable norms of behaviour. Studying all the characteristics of African culture would be a tedious task and beyond the scope of the present study. Therefore, the most salient cultural patterns are discussed below. They include respect for elders, the importance of the extended family, collectivism and deference to power and authority. This is not

comprehensive, but includes the cultural patterns that have been considered important in describing management practices in sub-Saharan Africa (Blunt and Jones, 1992)

The first important cultural pattern is “Respect for Elders”. In all African societies, the older person is, the more he/she is respected. However, one should recognize that Africans respect more the wisdom of an individual than his or her chronological age. Respect for elders implies a reciprocal relationship (Offodile and Beugre, 2001:530). As the younger respects the elder, the latter must, in return, take care of the former, provide him/her with advice and help him or her realize full potential. It is a relationship based on mutual interdependence.³⁷ With the westernization of most African countries, this pattern has been reversed in some urban areas. For example, those who have modern skills and/or wealth are often more influential and tend to command more respect. But since old habits die hard, respect for elders still shapes interpersonal relationships in most African countries (Kamoche 2001). An obvious implication for management is the manager/subordinate relationship that ought to be based on mutual interdependence but is not as Kamoche found out in his study in Kenya (2002).

The second pattern is “Importance of the extended family”. The Family is the social basic unit in Africa. The extended family system is a building block of any organization in African societies. It socializes the individual into the system and provides him or her with a sense of security and belonging (Nzelibe, 1986). In a study of managers’ motivation in Africa, Beugre (1998), notes that African managers are required to satisfy the social needs of their relatives. Behind every African worker, there is a family requesting attention, time and, mostly, money. Beugre also notes that obligation to relatives often leads to nepotism and/or favouritism, e.g. helping one’s relative or tribesman for a job is considered normal. Loyalty to family members is key to social acceptance as is also the importance of the group. In collectivist cultures, such as Kenya and Ethiopia, one assures one’s social integration by being loyal to one’s group, family or friends.

Thirdly, there is “collectivism”. African culture is collectivist (Dia, 1991; Hofstede, 1991). The group has more importance than the individual and group success is more valued than individual success. Traditional activities, such as hunting, fishing, harvesting, etc were performed through various groups. The average African feels more comfortable when he or she

³⁷ In a BBC radio interview on 19th May 2008 at 1.15am Prof. George Ayittey emphasised that “Power” is the main problem with African leaders. They have lost the respect of their people because they have not respected their choices during elections; Zimbabwe (2008), Kenya (2007) and Ethiopia (2005) are examples of this.

is in group than when he or she is alone (Ahianzu, 1989). Consensus building has characterized traditional African societies although in modern organizations, African managers tend to be autocratic (Nyambegera et al, 2000). Consensus is built through long discussions and negotiations. Where a problem occurs, the goal of the decision makers is not to punish one side and declare the other victorious: rather, it is to reconcile both parties. A good example is the recent political problem in Kenya where Kofi Anna helped in the negotiations which lead to power sharing. African culture is more inclined to harmony with nature and subjugation to it (offodile and Beugre, 200, p. 530).

African societies, like most traditional societies, are risk averse (Hofstede, 1980). People have a higher intolerance for uncertainty. They prefer more stable, predictable situations rather than change and uncertainty that bear the unknown. Montgomery (1987) contends that African managers appear conservative, preferring the unacceptable present to the unpredictable future.³⁸ Saleh (1985) notes that traditional values in Kenya do not encourage change but rather direct people to accept things as they are without question. Such an attitude is not restricted in Kenya and is found elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa. These traditional values also emphasize blind obedience to authorities (Ngambi, 2004, pp. 107-132).

The fourth is “Deference to Authority” Most Africans favour absolute obedience to authorities. In Africa, authority is related to formal status rather than to knowledge and specialized skills. One of the negative consequences of such a rigid authority system is widespread corruption and social injustices (Nyambegera et al, 2001:538). Cultures that inculcate acceptance of power differences lead individuals to expect, take for granted and, therefore, not get angry about injustices. Government officials and employees in the public as well as the private sector are involved in corruption. There is the conviction that to give a job to a fellow tribesman is not nepotism, it is an obligation (ibid.,539). Traditional beliefs may affect not only attitudes towards work but also work behaviours.

Therefore, an expatriate manager assigned to any foreign country needs to have an understanding of these and many more cultural patterns and the dimensions of his/her own country. Such an understanding will foster an effort to change one’s own attitudes and perceptions towards the host country and her people in the process of adjustment. That is why the cross cultural factor is essential in expatriate managers’ behaviour and adjustment. But

³⁸ This could be one of the reasons why they want to stay in power as long as possible, not just for themselves, but for those close to them, i.e. family, relatives, friends, etc.

there is need for the expatriate manager to be trained cross culturally not only in his/her cultural practices and values but also in those of the host nation.

2.3.6 Cross Cultural Training

The cultural dimensions indicate the complexity of culture. Culture includes many things such as; facial expressions, use of personal space, posture, gestures, personal appearance, and etiquette, body contact and appropriate conduct in dealing with men and women (Forster, 2000). Understanding and respecting these differences are essential if we are to adapt to working and living in another culture. What we think and how we chose to act is a result of what we have been taught in our culture. Hence, an expatriate manager who has been highly successful in one culture may find it difficult, if not impossible to function in another culture, unless she or he is aware of the significance of cultural differences (Adler 1986, Durmaine 1995). Another important element of culture is that it takes years to learn and internalize. Yet, when it comes to international assignments, expatriates are expected to engage in business and government relationships with people from other cultures and learn their culturally prescribed way of doing business in a matter of weeks, if not days (Goodman, 1990:4).

Therefore, because of this complexity of culture, it is essential that anyone embarking on an international assignment be knowledgeable about the cultural aspects of the environment they are moving in to. The ability to adapt to new cultures is one of the most important elements of a successful international assignment (Lee, 2005). This is where cross cultural training plays a vital role. The main purpose of training programmes is to introduce staff (expatriate managers) to the importance of culture and to sensitize them to cultural differences (Brewster, 1991; Black et al, 1995). They also make them aware of the inevitable psychological stresses that occur when people adapt to living and working in new cultures. However, they can never be a “cure all”, since with all training programs, their successes or otherwise, rests on the willingness of the participants to learn new skills and aptitudes.

It is clear that preparation and training for cross-cultural interactions is critical for the expatriate. Although cross-cultural training has proved to be effective, less than a third of expatriates are not given such training (Deresky 2000). Twenty years of research show that organizations have failed to pay sufficient attention to both the screening, selection and training of potential expatriate staff and the non technical skills that they should possess (Harvey 1995; Arthur and Bennett, 1995; Brislin and Yoshinda, 1994; Black and Mendenhall,

1990; Adler, 1981; Forster, 2000). The reasons given by organizations for this lack of cross cultural training are; lack of proven effectiveness (Baker and Invancerich 1971; Tung 1981; Schwind; 1986); time constraints (Tung 1982; and Gertsen 1990; and cost (Gerstsen 1990). On the other hand, there are researchers who have emphasized the role and importance of training (Bochner, 1982; Smith and Still, 1997; Brewster an Pickard, 1994; Forster and Johnson 1996; Forster, 2000). From their research, evidence suggests that cross cultural training positively affects cross cultural adjustment, however varied the effects maybe.

In conclusion, expatriates face the unfamiliar environment and may be torn with the ability to cope. Feelings of internal conflict may be aggravated by the inability to decipher the meaning of culturally different situations. This can be partly prevented by competence oriented intercultural training (Sanchez et al, 2000). Employers need to actively support the adjustment process of their expatriates because cultural considerations and training before and during the process have relevance in foreign assignments.

2.3.6.1 The Relevance of Cross Cultural Considerations and Training for Expatriates

If the cultural dimension is seriously considered by organizations in overseas assignments, then expatriates will be required to receive cultural training to enhance the adjustment process (Selmer 2001; Foster, 2000). The convergence of management is not likely to come. What we can bring about is an understanding of how the culture in which we grew up and which is dear to us affects our thinking differently from other people's thinking, and what this means for the transfer of management practice, theories and people.

In developing countries, foreign management methods and ideas were indiscriminately imported as part of "technology transfer". The evident failure of much of the international development assistance of the 1960s and 70s is at least partly due to the lack of cultural sensitivity in the transfer of management ideas and personnel (Saleh, 1985; Jackson, 2004). It has caused enormous economic loses and human suffering. How do we deal with clashes of values, i.e. encounter of expatriates from the economically successful cultures modifying those of the developing world in innumerable encounters?

Expatriates in developing countries often work within the most westernized spheres of society, industry, trade, technology and related areas (Dia, 1991). They are usually taking part

in the westernization of the society in question. The most important function of a lot of expatriates is transfer of technology in some form or another (Javidan et al, 2004). Transfer of technology means transfer of culture at the same time, because most types of technology implicitly assume certain cultural values, world views, concepts of time, and attitudes towards work and so on. This is probably why host nationals find it difficult to make the technology work after the expatriates have left. Hence, the need for some adjustment to the local culture is necessary and some knowledge of local cultural values and norms. A model that considers culture especially for African countries will facilitate successful adjustment. Such a model is the culture-fit model.

2.3.6.2 A Culture-Fit Model

Beugre and Offodile (2001) suggest a culture fit model of management in Sub Saharan Africa. They point out that the first reason for such a model is stated by several authors (Drucker, 1969; Hofstede, 1980a, 1980b, 1991) that management is culture dependent. Theories developed in a given culture reflect the main patterns of that culture. Therefore, these theories are not easily transferable to other cultures. Second, despite the cultural dimension of management, some aspects of theories developed in the West may apply to the African context. Third, a culture –fit model may pave the way for further research on the integration of African cultural patterns and modern management techniques. Fourth, and important for this study, development of the cultural fit model may help advance modern management techniques that will undoubtedly improve the tenure of foreign companies and managers in sub-Saharan Africa and bring economic gains to them and economic development to this region of the world.

A cultural model suggests a synthesis between indigenous cultures and modern management techniques in Sub-Saharan Africa. This synthesis will be will be beneficial to expatriates who are interested in knowing the African cultural patterns (Leonard, 1987; Blunt and Jones, 1992). Several components of the cultural fit model include transformational leadership, employee participation and empowerment, performance-based compensation system, future-oriented mentality and collaboration management. Findings from the analyses of these components could be used in cross cultural training both for the expatriate and for the African manager. Additional knowledge of any kind as regards culture will definitely enhance cross cultural adjustment (Guzzo et al, 1994; Florkowski and Fogel, 1999; Lee, 2005).

Expatriate managers have another aspect to consider in the adjustment process, their role as leaders. As leaders in a foreign land, their behaviour may be misunderstood by subordinates and this may have an impact on the subordinates' job satisfaction, commitment and motivation. Therefore, there is need to review literature in the area of leadership in order to advise expatriates on appropriate behaviour in Kenya and Ethiopia. First, we distinguish between leadership and management.

2.3.6.3 Leadership and Management

In Kenya, two main approaches are being used to improve NGO leadership potential. First, the leadership capabilities are expected to emerge as a bi-product of internal training and capacity building; and second, to concentrate on individuals by providing exposure visits, stimulating group discussion about current issues and moral behaviour and forming mutual support groups and networks.³⁹

A good starting point is looking at the similarities and differences between leadership and management. This two can be treated as complementary. Leaders and managers are both different and similar and they must work well together. It is important that everyone in the organization lives, expresses and communicates its vision goals and purpose. Alan Kaplan (1998) summarised the comparisons of the two functions as follows:

Management	Leadership
Administers	Innovates
Focuses on systems	Focuses on people
Relies on control	Inspires trust
Short-range view	Long term perspective
Asks how and when	Asks what and why
Eye on bottom line	Eye on the horizon
Imitates	Originates
Does things rights	Does the right thing

Neither is better, they are all required and management can be seen as a necessary structure that supports leadership, while leadership gives the outlook and the “one step ahead” foresight that the structure needs in order to point in the right direction. Therefore, without structure a leader is bodiless and without direction management can go astray or stand still. In most international NGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia, the chief executive is often the manager as

³⁹ NGO Leadership Development Series No. 2, 2001: 13. These approaches are meant for both local and international NGOs

well as the leader. In this study, the expatriate managers are regarded as managers and leaders with the dual functions mentioned above. Next, we examine leadership.

2.4 Leadership

Literature on cross cultural studies suggests that leaders (expatriate managers) tend to stick to their customary leadership styles even in foreign lands (Black and Porter, 1991; Yukl, 2002). A lack of understanding of what constitutes acceptable behaviour, styles and practices at the work place could lead managers to be labeled as insensitive, inconsiderate and even ineffective (Asma Abdullah, 1992).

An increase in research on leadership has been fueled by a growing interest in explaining organizational effectiveness through the actions of top executives (Hambrick, 1989; Hambrick and Mason, 1984). For most of the 20th Century, leadership was a topic of study for social scientists, yet there was no consensus on the definition of leadership (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002). Scholars have advanced a wide variety of definitions but the core in almost all these definitions concern influence, i.e. how leaders influence others to help accomplish group or organizational objectives. In the interest of this study, only certain aspects of leadership will be examined such as, the definition, leader behaviour and attributes, and the cultural dimension of leadership.

2.4.1 Definition

Most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization (Yukl, 2002:2). The numerous definitions of leadership that have been proposed appear to have little else in common. The origin of the word “to lead” comes from the Latin verb “agere” meaning to set in motion (Jennings, 1960). Today’s meaning of the word leader has a sense of someone who sets ideas, people, and organizations in motion. Leadership is something more than the extent to which a particular leader has been influenced. To appreciate leadership, we must also ask the ends to which a leader’s behaviour is directed. In this perspective, leaders can be viewed as people whose vision, courage and influence set ideas, people, organizations and societies in motion towards the betterment of their organization, their community and the world. After reviewing comprehensive literature on leadership, the definition of House et al (1999:184) will be used in this study. According to them, leadership is “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the

organization". This definition is also used by GLOBE (House et al, 2004). Since this study is anchored by the GLOBE project, its definition of leadership is appropriate.

2.4.2 Leadership Approaches

Prior to the 1980s, the three main approaches to the study of leadership were; the "trait", "style" and "contingency" approaches. Since the 1980s there is the "New leadership Approach" (including the charismatic and transformational leadership) which emphasizes that leaders need vision (Bryman, 1992). Further research has shown that the context in which a leader operates was recognized as a critical influence both on leadership behaviour and on effectiveness (Yukl, 2002). The behaviour that leads to success as a leader in one situation, maybe wholly inappropriate in a different setting (Drucker, 1955:195). Today, the cultural context is vital when considering leadership in addition to charisma and ability to transform situations. We need to ask the question; "to what extent is leadership culturally contingent?" Empirical research (House, Wright and Aditya, 1997) has demonstrated that what is expected of leaders, what leaders may do or not do, and the status and influence bestowed on leaders vary due to cultural forces. In other words, leadership is culturally contingent.

Contingency Leadership

Modern leadership theory recognizes that no single leadership style works well in all situations (Deresky, 2000). A considerable amount of research, directly or indirectly supports the notion of cultural contingency in leadership. Hofstede's four cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980) and GLOBE's nine cultural dimensions (House et al, 2004) provide a good starting point to study leader subordinate expectations and relationships. We can assume for example, that employees in Africa that rank high on power distance are more likely to prefer an autocratic leadership style and some paternalism because they are more comfortable with a clear distinction between managers and subordinates than with a blurring of decision making responsibility (Scarborough, 1999).

Africa according to Hofstede's research has the following dimensions: collectivism, high power distance, low uncertainty avoidance and femininity (Deresky, 2000). These dimensions can be summarized as follows: the high power distance stems from the recognition of and submission to the authority of age-based wisdom and experience (Dia, 1991; Saleh, 1985). Collectivism is essential for survival in a rigorous environment poor in resources and supporting only small, widely dispersed communities, with the extended family as the primary collective unit (Sindima, 1990). Femininity is essential to maintain harmonious relationships within the collective unit and with supernatural and natural forces (Kochman, 1981; Dia, 1991). Low uncertainty avoidance is a result of fatalistic dependence on the

supernatural and nature, with its unpredictable event and cyclical rhythms of constant change (Mazrui, 1990). These core values influence leaders and their behaviour towards the people they are leading the society at large. Therefore, expatriate managers need to be aware of these core values in order to behave appropriately especially towards their immediate subordinates. This leads us to examine leader behaviour in relation to expatriates.

2.4.3 Leader Behaviours

Successful leaders bring about changes in their followers' attitude and behaviour for better performance. Subordinates are influenced by their managers either positively or negatively (Rauch and Behling, 1984). Yukl (1989) explains how managers attempt to achieve success through fourteen behavioural practices: supporting, consulting, delegating, recognizing, rewarding, motivating, managing conflict, team building, developing, planning, organizing, and problem solving, informing, motivating, representing and networking. Interest in leader behaviour and attributes is one of the concerns of this study.

This concern addressed by the GLOBE Project is the extent to which specific leader attributes and behaviours are universally endorsed as contributing to effective leadership, and the extent to which attributes and behaviours are linked to cultural characteristics. House et al (1997) identified 21 specific attributes or behaviours that are universally viewed as contributors to leadership effectiveness and 8 that are universally viewed as impediments to leader effectiveness. Furthermore, 35 specific leader attributes or behaviours are considered to be contributors in some cultures and impediments in others⁴⁰. Six global leader behaviour referred to as (Leadership dimensions) were identified and are briefly defined as follows:

Table 2.2: Leadership Dimensions: Six Global Leader Behaviours

Definition of Leadership Dimensions
Charismatic/Value Based Leadership: This dimension reflects ability to inspire, to motivate, and to expect high performance outcomes from others based on firmly held core values.
Participative Leadership: It reflects the degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions.
Team-Oriented Leadership: This leadership dimension emphasizes effective team building and implementation of the common purpose or goal among team members.
Autonomous Leadership: This newly defined dimension refers to independent and individualistic leadership attributes.
Humane-Oriented Leadership: This dimension reflects supportive and considerate leadership but also includes compassion and generosity.
Self-Protective Leadership: From a Western perspective, this newly defined leadership behaviour focuses on ensuring that safety and security of the individual and group through status enhancement and face saving.

⁴⁰ All these leader attributes and behaviours are found in GLOBE Phase 1 book (House et al, 2004; and findings are presented in chapter 21.

(Table 2.2 was Formulated *from: House et al, 2004, p. 14-15; , GLOBE Project, Part I*)

The importance of these six leadership behaviours to this study is that knowledge of these leader behaviour preferences will help expatriate modify their behaviours to suit those preferred in Kenya and Ethiopia. This awareness and modification is expected to lead to appropriate behaviour towards subordinates. Since expatriates come from various countries, comparison of these global leader behaviours, cultural practices and values would be tedious and difficult. This is made easier by classifying societies or countries into regions or clusters which makes it possible to identify similarities and differences. The next section deals with clusters since Kenya and Ethiopia are classified into clusters.

Thus far, this review of literature has examined the various topics related to this study in the fields of International Human Resources Management, Expatriate Management, and Cross Cultural Management. This will be used to identify the gap in literature and the methods of investigation used in research. The next section examines some methods of investigation used in the study of culture, leadership and expatriate adjustment. Only a few are selected, those that are used in this study in relation to research aims and questions.

2.4.4 African Leadership and Management in Organizations

According to Kiggundu (1988), the dominant management philosophy in Africa, although not necessarily the practice is similar to the principles of classical management. There are sharp distinctions and status differences between management and workers. Management has the power, the control, the authority, and regulates reward and punishment mechanisms. The workers are expected to do their work and obey managements' instructions and directives. Blunt and Jones (1997) also note this autocratic leadership style displayed by African managers. African leadership is characterized by highly centralized power structures, high degrees of uncertainty, emphasis on control mechanisms, rather than organizational performance and bureaucratic resistance to change. This autocratic leadership style expects subordinates to be submissive and obedient, which may stifle innovativeness and impede employee motivation (Jaeger and Kanungo, 1990). Expatriate managers are not expected to have this autocratic style since their immediate managers are part of the top management team and require/demand participatory leadership. Therefore, inappropriate behaviour from expatriate managers may result in resignation of immediate subordinates. For example, in

1998 in Ethiop, three project managers of an INGO resigned when a new country director was perceived as acting in an autocratic manner⁴¹.

African management development: The body of literature focuses on the need for capable leadership and management in Africa. The second stream of work falls within the body of literature on national culture that has become quite prominent in organization studies in recent years (Nkomo, 2006). These texts examine “African leadership and management” in the context of describing Africa’s national culture primarily with Geert Hofstede (1980) seminal typology. The term category consists of representations of African leadership and management that appear in discussions of precursors of management theory in popular management textbooks

The management textbooks reviewed also make reference to management in Africa although not explicitly (e.g. Griffin, 2005). The representations most often appear in sectors discussing management history and its origins. Typically, the reference is to the building of the great pyramids in Egypt as an example of the existence of management in antiquity (Griffin 2005:42) other than the reference to Egypt, “African” management is largely invisible in management textbooks. Discussions of precursors to “management theory” in the texts are typically followed by a formal treatment of management theory as represented by classical management theory and scientific management theory. In these texts, there is no reference to the other great ancient civilizations in Africa (e.g. Timbuktu, Shongai, Empire of Mali, and Mapungubwe)⁴². Riad (2005) suggests this is consistent with the tendency to position ancient Egypt as the only country on the African continent relevant to the recorded history of all knowledge.

Researcher’s Comments

One rationale for our study in culture and leadership in Africa is that most of the leadership research during the past 50 years was conducted in the United States, Canada and Western Europe (Yukl, 2007). Researchers who conducted these studies have been primarily trained in the West (ibid, p. 56; House, 1995, p. 443-444). In 1993, Hofstede made a similar point “in a global perspective, US management theories contain several idiosyncrasies not necessarily shared by management elsewhere” (Hofstede, 1993, p.81). That is why a study of culture and leadership in Sub-Saharan Africa to consider its general and specific cultures is important.

⁴¹ This is an INGO in which the researcher had worked in Ethiopia

⁴² Diop, C.A. 1987. Pre-colonial black Africa. Westport, CT: Lawrence Hill and Company

An important aspect that requires attention is the feeling of the recipients of INGO aid and the reactions of subordinates towards their expatriate managers. The expatriate managers and other expatriates in the cities like Nairobi and Addis Ababa have caused the prices of property to rise including rent. Landlords want expatriates as tenants because rent is paid by the organization for two or three years which an average Kenyan or Ethiopian cannot afford. Although there is no academic literature on these relationships, articles in newspapers in Kenya and Ethiopia indicate that there are mixed feelings towards INGOs from governments and local NGOs (these have been elaborated in the NGO environment discussion earlier in the chapter). Especially in Ethiopia, there is that feeling from people that they have lost their dignity, the feeling of shame in being helpless- that is also with subordinates, and any inappropriate comment or behaviour from expatriate managers could cause deep hurt. This is evident when the donors dictate what they want their funds to be used for disregarding the recipients' wishes.⁴³ Sub-Saharan Africa, mainly because of its poverty and marginalization, is a part of the global South that the Western world feels comfortable imposing its ideals upon despite the fact that these are often based in limited knowledge of the region and its people (especially the varied and complex cultures). This calls for studies on African cultures, management and leadership styles that can be taught to expatriate managers in INGOs. This study is a small contribution towards that realization and focuses on expatriate managers and their immediate subordinates in INGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia.

2.6 The Gap in the Literature

The broad scan of the literature has identified the context of the proposed study, models and theories of expatriate adjustment and leadership, and the gap in the literature. The gap was identified after considering literature on cross cultural adjustment and expatriate managers especially in Europe, North America and Asia. Empirical research on the topic in relation to management of organizations is lacking in Eastern Africa (Jackson, 2004). What follows is the gap identified in the literature and aspects dealt with in this study.

- (i) Overlooked in research are the perceptions and attitudes of the host country and people in general towards expatriate managers from different countries and how this can affect adjustment. *An investigation of societal culture of Kenya and Ethiopia has resulted in cultural and leadership dimensions.*
- (ii) Another aspect is the expatriate's willingness to adjust, reasons for accepting the assignment, their motives and attitudes towards the host country nationals. In this

⁴³ What are NGOs Really Doing in Africa? In New African, August/September, 2005 No. 443

study, interviews with expatriate managers yielded sufficient information regarding reasons for acceptance of assignment and attitudes towards host nationals.

- (iii) Host employees: their need to adjust to the expatriate's culture, his/her personality and characteristics. *In this study, subordinates rated the expatriate's behaviour and indicated their reactions to this behaviour.*
- (iv) The impact of expatriate managers' motives and behaviour on the host nations' subordinates. Research on this impact has not been carried out in Africa. *This study focuses on subordinate's psychological states of ; organizational commitment, motivation and job satisfaction*

The significance of this research is that it deals with non governmental organizations rather than multinational companies whose goal is profit. NGOs are driven by the desire to improve the world in which we live. Most of the people who manage, work and volunteer for them believe in the creation of a fairer, more caring, better educated and healthier world (Hudson, 1999). They exist for a social purpose rather than having a profit making objective, re-investing all their financial surpluses in the services they offer or the organization itself. For this reason, expatriates sent to these organizations abroad may have different experiences from those sent to the public and private sectors in the developing world. NGOs especially international ones are enormously influential (Jackson, 2004; Kamoche, 1999). Many of the great social changes and innovations have been brought to fruition through them (Wootlif et al, 2000).

2.7 Chapter Summary

This review of literature has dealt that International Human Resources Management, expatriate adjustment, cross cultural adjustment and leadership, clusters, methods of investigation and the gap in the literature. It has shown that the process of internalization is a complex one. In discussing HRM in developing countries like Kenya and Ethiopia, we face problems of adopting the developed-developing world paradigm and the need to understand this in the context of cross cultural theory. There is also a need for high level of awareness of multicultural dynamics and of an understanding of the powers that exist often as a result of a colonial legacy. In these countries, international NGOs face the task of translating vision into action by identifying human resource needs in terms of competencies. International NGO involvement has both positive and negative effects because apart from contributing to

development, they manifest the increasing inability of the governments (Kenya and Ethiopia) to meet the basic needs of people and to provide essential services.

International Human Resources Management is concerned with global management which includes recruiting and retaining an international workforce. This workforce known as expatriates has to adjust to new cultures. There are various aspects to the study of expatriates of which adjustment is important. Expatriate adjustment was identified as a vital aspect of IHRM. It was identified as a multidimensional phenomenon comprising: psychological (psychological well being and satisfaction with different aspects of new life), Socio-cultural (effective functioning in social and cultural life), and Work (effectiveness on job and positive work attitudes) adjustment. Culture was identified as an important factor in adjustment. Since expatriates face an unfamiliar environment, they need cultural training in order to cope. It was emphasized that cross cultural training is essential for cultural sensitivity and awareness if the expatriate manager is to adjust successfully. The leadership aspect is also vital in adjustment since leadership and management styles differ from culture to culture and leader behaviour may not be appropriate in all cultures.

Finally, the gap in knowledge identified by the review of literature includes the lack of empirical research in Kenya and Ethiopia on expatriate adjustment, cross cultural leadership and subordinates reactions on leader (expatriate) motives and behaviour. The next chapter uses the information from the literature reviewed to formulate a research design and hypotheses for this study.

Chapter Three

Research Design and Hypotheses

This chapter provides the research design of the study by describing the kind of research and the research process. First, it summarizes the conclusions of literature review, describes the research design and derives aims and questions from relevant theories. Secondly, it develops a theoretical framework and a model of expatriate managers' adjustment and the impact of their motives and behaviour on subordinates on which research findings can be obtained. Thirdly, it develops hypotheses from the main topics of the study, namely, societal culture and expatriate managers' adjustment (includes expatriate personality, leader motives and behaviour, and subordinate reactions). Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of what has been discussed.

Introduction

Review of literature indicated that globalization of Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) presents numerous cultural and leadership challenges e.g. the identification and selection of leaders appropriate to the cultures in which they are functioning, the management of organizations with culturally diverse employees, as well as cross cultural negotiation. There is little guidance for leaders facing these challenges (House, Wright and Aditya, 1997; House and Aditya, 1997). Cross cultural research and a development of cross cultural theory are needed to fill this knowledge gap.

This study is designed to consider the issues of culture and leadership in expatriate managers' adjustment and its impact on subordinates working in INGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia. Both societal culture and leadership are analyzed in order to explain the culture attributes that affect societies' susceptibility to leadership influence. It also examines the extent to which cultural forces do influence the expectations that individuals have for leaders and their behaviour, in this case, expatriate leader motives and behaviours' impact on subordinates. It is expected that leadership styles vary in accordance with culturally specific values and expectations (Yukl, 2002, House et al, 2004). The sections that follow give a summary of the literature then explain the type of research undertaken, theoretical background, framework, model and main theories employed and finally formulation of hypotheses.

3.1 Summary and Conclusions of Literature Review

Review of literature covered IHRM, NGOs, expatriate adjustment, culture, and leadership. Before proceeding to the research design and hypotheses formulation, a summary of the review will situate us in the context of the research. IHRM is concerned with the global management of human resources and its purpose is to enable the firm or organization to be successful globally (Schuler et al, 2002). Its main objective is to recruit and retain an international workforce of the best people available for the jobs and increase effectiveness of this workforce. Global staffing helps organizations to coordinate and control their global operations (Ayman, 1997). It requires training and development before, during and after the assignment in order to facilitate adjustment in and after the foreign assignment (Selmer, 2000; 2002; 2004; Lee, 2005). Some expatriate failures occur because of potential cultural biases (Forster, 1997; Caliguiri, 2000). This research addresses the aspect of cultural differences between the host nations (Kenya and Ethiopia) and parent nations (expatriate' countries).

IHRM policies and practices in the host nation must be utilized by the international organizations because they are operating in the local context. A contribution from developing countries is management from a more humanistic view of people in organizations (Kamoche, 2000). The expatriate manager has a lot to learn in multicultural contexts of emerging countries in order to understand the “culture-specific” nature of HRM in these countries and the need to acknowledge the strength of cross national differences (Brewster, 2000; Poole, 1999). In these countries, the political, economic and social cultural contexts have influenced the “African thought system” emphasizing ethnocentrism, traditionalism, communalism and cooperative teamwork (Kamoche, 1992; 2002).

One of the organizational realities in the growth of INGOs is a response to humanitarian and other needs in Kenya and Ethiopia. INGOs in Ethiopia are resented by the government because they are connected with disaster and disaster relief tarnishing the government’s image as not being able to manage disasters (Berhanu, 2000; Telake, 2005). In the Kenyan context, they are encouraged because of the government’s failure to improve accountability and implement reforms (Muiruri, 2000; Kameri-Mbote, 2000). These are the contextual realities that expatriate managers have to operate in and adjust.

Expatriate adjustment is an aspect of IHRM. It is the degree of fit between the expatriate and the environment, both work and socio-cultural (Black et al, 1991). This fit is marked by reduced conflict and increased effectiveness (Church, 1982; Sanchez et al; 2000). This adjustment occurs in four faces: the honeymoon effect, culture shock, adjustment stage and mastery stage. During these stages, adjustment occurs in three dimensions; adjustment to work, adjustment to interacting with host nationals and adjustment due to non-work environment (Selmer, 2004; Lee, 2005). Some models depict the psychological and socio-cultural dimensions of adjustment with various determinants in the adjustment process (Ayman, 1997; Selmer, 2001). A vital determinant is culture (Hofstede, 1980; House et al, 2004). Emphasis was given to cultural practices and values from the GLOBE Study (House et al, 2004). Recognizing cultural differences is the necessary step to anticipating potential threats and opportunities for foreign businesses and other encounters (Black et al, 1991; Sanchez et al, 2000). This recognition can be gotten through cross cultural training that covers culture and leadership.

Leadership was defined as “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organization’ (House et al,

2004:16). It was noted that the behaviour that leads to success as a leader in one situation maybe wholly inappropriate in a different setting and that no single leadership style works well in all situations. The six global leader behaviours: charismatic, participative, Team oriented, autonomous, humane oriented and self-protective behaviours were examined.

We draw from this body of literature to further investigate the relationship between expatriate managers' adjustment and its impact on immediate subordinates. The gap in literature was identified as lack of research in Eastern Africa on expatriate managers' adjustment, cultural and leadership dimensions and subordinate reactions to expatriate leader behaviour as perceived by subordinates. The context is international non government organizations (INGOs) in Kenya and Ethiopia. This context is important because INGO managers face humanitarian challenges and are expected to show empathy, emotional understanding and treat subordinates and aid recipients with respect. This gap was used to design research aims of this study and formulate hypothesis.

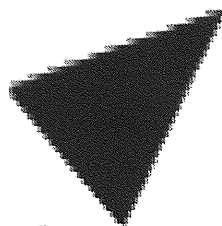
3.2 Research Design

The design of this study follows Churchill's six stage process of designing a research and King et al's (1994) considerations in designing social inquiry. These are combined to form the following main stages which can be further elaborated in a diagram (Figure 3.1)⁴⁴. This diagram shows a flowchart of the process used in designing this research, from conceptualisation to operationalization. The stages are:

1. *Research aim and/or research question, problem and/or hypothesis*: First, we derived research aims from relevant theories considering our assumptions and the questions that could be asked from the aims. We then established what we would like to achieve given these aims.
2. *Determination of variables*: We determined nine societal culture variables, six leader behaviour variables, four expatriate managers' motives and five intercultural personality traits as independent variables; and expatriate adjustment, behaviour (as rated by subordinates) and subordinate reactions as dependent variables. As for interviews, expatriate managers focused on: expectations, fear, training, cultural knowledge, interaction with immediate subordinates, positive and negative managerial traits, general experience and their management philosophies.

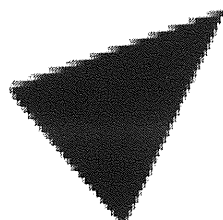
⁴⁴ www.chronicpoverty.org/.../Design-diagram-z.htm

3. *Research strategy*: This is the “thinking” behind conducting our research. We developed the rationale for research by conducting a literature search and review on the subjects related to our topic. This search helped us identify the gap in knowledge. The search for information included books, journal articles, INGO and financial institution reports and websites. Evaluating the sources and information found, we were able to refine our topic to: “Expatriate Managers’ Adjustment and Their Impact on Subordinates”
4. *Research methods*: Questionnaires were administered to middle managers, expatriate managers and subordinates, and interviews conducted on expatriate managers in order to achieve our intended objectives.
5. *Indicators, units of analysis, time frame, resources, assumptions and biases, ethical considerations*: Assumptions, biases and ethical considerations were taken into account e.g. response biases, confidentiality and the assumption that responses are genuine and correct.
6. *Secondary research*: This involved using societal culture and leadership dimensions developed by GLOBE for countries other than the two of this study for calculation of cultural distance and in the discussion section. Results from previous intercultural personality traits were used in explaining the relevant traits in this study. In addition to this, issues from indigenous and modern cultures that affect management and leadership were considered while taking into account the NGO context.
7. *Primary research*: Data gathered from middle managers, expatriate managers, and their immediate subordinates was used to meet specified objectives. This research is an attempt to create new/original/novel knowledge, to contribute to the cumulative knowledge of humanity. The knowledge is not just new to us, it is new to the world i.e. the societal culture and leadership dimensions, reactions of subordinates to expatriate leader behaviour and expatriate managers’ experience of the adjustment process in Kenya and Ethiopia; their indigenous cultures and the NGO environment in these countries.
8. *Analysis*: SPSS was used for quantitative analysis while NVIVO was used for qualitative analysis.
9. *Reporting - process, findings, conclusions and recommendations*: This lead back to the start of the process as we re-examined aims and objectives, refined them and strengthened discussions.



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In designing this research, it is essential to start with the type of research. The next section deals with the type of research used in this study explaining why it is exploratory, confirmatory and explanatory.

3.3 Types of Research

What has been researched by various scholars involved getting answers to the formulated questions and proving or disproving proposed hypothesis regarding expatriate manager adjustment and subordinate reaction (Aycan, 1997; Black et al, 1991; Florkowski and Fogel, 1999; House et al, 2002; Selmer, 2001; Shaffer et al, 2000). First, this study is exploratory. Despite what has been stated in literature, it is necessary to examine whether or not every variable of influence has been identified and hence represented in conceptual models. Much of the information on expatriate adjustment has been provided by literature in international human resource management, expatriate management and comparative management (Armstrong, 2001; Caliguiri, 2000; Deresky, 2000; Dia, 1991; Forster, 1997; Selmer, 2004; Lee, 2005). Therefore, it is important to examine if there are any variables which are specific to expatriate managers' adjustment in the countries of this study. According to Hofstede (1980) and other researchers (e.g. House et al, 2002; 2004) on societal culture and leadership, it is important to investigate work values in order to better plan management policies and practices. The expatriate manager needs to know the cultural dimensions and preferred leader behaviours of the host country in order to construct or invent ways of coping in the new culture.

Secondly, this study is confirmatory. It is important to validate what has been found in the literature before a contribution is made. In this respect, cultural dimensions for the East African region have been established (Hofstede 1991) and GLOBE (House et al, 2004), but are these applicable to each of the two Eastern Africa countries? As regards adjustment of expatriate managers, literature has provided a detailed background on ways to facilitate adjustment, though not applied to East Africa. Can what has been provided for Europe, Asia and America be applicable to expatriate managers in Kenya and Ethiopia given the cultural diversity and INGO context? For example, House et al's (2002), study on CEOs and the impact of their behaviour on subordinates, if applied to expatriate managers will the results be significant?

Finally, this research is explanatory. It can be argued that the antecedents of expatriate adjustment are known (Black and Gregersen, 1991a; Selmer, 2001a), then, those which are seen as producing a negative outcome for the adjustment process or organization can be removed, therefore, enhancing adjustment and performance. Conversely, if any positive performing antecedents are identified, it may be possible for organizations to adopt the causal effect. In addition, experiences given by expatriate managers themselves living in Kenya and Ethiopia contribute richly to the adjustment discussion since they share with us their expectations, hopes, fears, etc. In this respect, the consequences of expatriate manager's adjustment may be used to help organizations in human resource management. Furthermore, preferred leader behaviours and subordinate reactions can be used to explain part of the success or failure of expatriates in Kenya and Ethiopia.

3.4 Theoretical Background

The general framework is anchored by the GLOBE Project, phase 1 and 2 (House et al, 2004), Phase 3 (Chhokar, Brodbeck and House, 2007), House et al (2002) article on *Charismatic Theory of Leadership: An Empirical Test of CEOs*; Blacks' (1988; 1991) study on adjustment; Shaw's (1990) model of intercultural management and Hofstede's (1993) article on "cultural Dimensions in People Management: The Socialization Perspective". Finally, Aycan's (1997) article on expatriate adjustment as a multifaceted phenomenon was used to identify critical antecedents of expatriate adjustment in this study. Although many other works on adjustment, culture and leadership were considered, the rationale for this choice is explained throughout the text. A critique of the GLOBE project was given in the literature review chapter.

First, to convey the impact of culture and cultural differences on expatriate managers more significantly, key results of the GLOBE Project on national cultures and leader behaviours is offered as a way to gain insight into what exists and is preferred in various cultures.

Knowledge of both host and parent cultures and leader behaviours is expected to enhance recognition of differences and bring behaviour modification appropriate for successful adjustment (House et al, 2004). The theories that guide the GLOBE Project are; an integration of implicit leadership theory (Lord and Maher, 1991), value-based belief theory of culture (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995) and implicit motivation Theory (McClelland, 1985). In addition, the theory of met expectations was be used in this study to investigate whether or not the expatriate managers' expectations had a significant impact on adjustment (Caliguiri et

al, 1999; Porter and Steers, 1973; Wanous, 1980, 1992). These theories will be explained later in the chapter.

House et al's, (2002) article on charismatic leadership reports a study of the effect of motives and behaviour of chief executives on the psychological states of immediate subordinates and their reports on top management team effectiveness. The psychological states assessed are the subordinates' satisfaction, motivation and organizational commitment. They advance hypotheses derived from five theories relevant to the motivation and behaviour of effective leaders. Some of these were adapted in the formulation of hypotheses on expatriate managers' adjustment and reactions of immediate subordinates.

Chhokar, Brodbeck and House's (2007) book focuses on qualitative data from 25 countries featuring contributions from 18,000 middle managers from 1000 organizations in 62 countries. It is based on focus group responses, in-depth ethnographic interviews, conceptions of outstanding leadership found in the media, participant observations and unobtrusive measurements from each of these countries, providing rich data about conceptions of leadership that are universal and culture specific. This volume effectively presents a complex collection of Global research, addressing the culture particular countries, leadership qualities within those countries, and recommendations on how managers should conduct business in countries other than their own⁴⁵. In the last chapter of the book, strengths and limitations of the GLOBE Study were discussed and a summary of similarities and differences in clusters is given.

Other models used in designing this study include, Black et al (1991), Aycan's (1997) and Shaw's (1990). Black et al's (1991) model explores the respective anticipatory (pre-assignment) adjustment and in-country adjustment play in the overall adjustment process. Cultural novelty tends to describe how different the host and parent culture are, offering no insight into the willingness of the local individuals to deal with foreigners within their borders. Aycan's (1997) model redresses the omission by specifying several characteristics of the local unit that should influence assignees' perceived acceptance by the host nationals, such as host attitudes towards foreign investment and personnel, cultural-diversity awareness and local socialization efforts.

⁴⁵ This is the review on the cover page by Harry Triandis and Kwok, Leung of: Chhokar, J S. Brodbeck F. C. and House R.J (Eds) (2007). *Culture and Leadership Across the World: The GLOBE Book of in-depth studies of 25 Societies*. Mahwah, N.J.:LEA Publishers

Shaw's (1990) model of intercultural management is particularly useful in understanding how ethnocentric clashes may arise in interactions between host country nationals (HCNs) and parent country nationals (PCNs) or third-country nationals (TCNs). According to the model, fundamental differences can exist regarding the ways that information is collected, processed, stored and used by those involved in cross-cultural exchanges. It is anticipated that HCNs will withhold social, administrative and technical support from expatriates whenever the latter are perceived to be engaging in "threatening" or "inappropriate" behaviours. An evaluation of these models has led to a formulation of a framework for this study. The next section deals with the theoretical framework.

3.5 Theoretical Framework

This study is defined by and framed around theoretical literature from culture, leader motives and behaviours, intercultural personality traits and expatriate adjustment. These were chosen because they represent the area of research in culture and leadership. The contribution of each collection of literature to this study will be discussed in sequence. First, we examine societal culture and leadership theories to explain why culture and leader behaviour are essential in expatriate managers' adjustment. Since each culture responds differently to leader motives and behaviours, these can have an impact on immediate subordinates thus affecting their effectiveness (House et al, 2002; Selmer, 2004).

Culture and leadership literature has allowed the researcher to complement previous researches by demonstrating some of the antecedents of expatriate adjustment. The consideration of the impact of expatriate leader motives and behaviours on immediate subordinates is intended to demonstrate the link between culture, leadership and subordinate domains, as well as highlighting the importance of subordinate reactions in expatriate management in INGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia. Motivation and leader behaviour theories strengthen the argument of leader-subordinate interaction. The argument for this research and its design is developed throughout the text. We make use of past theories and research and derive the aims of this study. Since this study is both quantitative and qualitative, we will test hypothesis and explore research aims. Our main purpose is to test hypotheses and investigate the delineated aims. We next derive our aims from theories and formulate hypotheses.

3.5.1 Theories

According to Hatch (1997), a theory is an explanation, an attempt to explain a segment of experience in the world. It rests on a set of assumptions -that form the foundation of a series of logically interrelated claims, e.g. some theories assume that reality is object (out there) while others assume that it is subjective (in here). Therefore, different assumptions lead to different theories. Because of these differences, it is important to identify the assumptions on which a particular theory rests. For example, according to a culturalist view, organizational success does not depend on sympathy between structural and contingency factors. Rather, it depends on a match between an organization's structure and the culturally derived expectations of its members (Tayeb, 1988). We therefore, start with a critical view of cultural theory.

3.5.1.1 Cultural Theory

In the literature chapter, culture was defined as “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meaning of significant events that result from experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations” (House et al, 2004:15). Lawrence and Lorsch (1967:40) emphasize that the major strengths of the cultural perspective as whole is its recognition of;

- (a) the important role that culture plays in shaping work related values, attitudes and behaviours of individual members of various societies,
- (b) the fact that cultural values and attitudes are different in degree from one society to another, and
- (c) the fact that different cultural groups behave differently under similar circumstances because of the differences in their underlying values and attitudes.

The drawbacks of this theory include;

- (i) Studies suffer from methodological inadequacies. Studied influence of culture on organization but not cultural settings of organizations concerned; Influence of non-cultural variables.
- (ii) No effort has been made to disentangle organizations own culture from the culture of the society within which they operate,
- (iii) Differences maybe due to subculture and not societal culture, exception of Hofstede study (1980) and GLOBE study (2004)

- (iv) Culturalists tend to overemphasize the role of culture in organization to the neglect of the importance of the commercial, non-cultural environment which surrounds the organization and imposes its own demands and imperatives on the organization.

According to this theory, an expatriate manager assigned to Kenya or Ethiopia has to realise that the cultural values and attitudes of these countries are different from his/her own and it is essential to know them before or during the adjustment process. In these countries where there are various sub-cultures (Kamoche, 1997b), it would be a task of many years to examine these sub-cultures in order to have a comprehensive data on indigenous cultures for the expatriates. We decided to examine the societal culture that will guide the expatriate manager as he/she interacts with subordinates. We also included the main issues of indigenous cultures in Kenya and Ethiopia. These are a guide and the expatriate manager is expected to be vigilant and learn through observation and asking for clarification when in doubt. Learning from experience is more effective, “experience is the best teacher”.

The societal culture and leader behaviour as measured by the GLOBE project was more appropriate for our purposes since it takes into account past researches (e.g. Hofstede, 1980; Kluckhohn and Strodtbecks, 1991; McClelland, 1985a). The GLOBE researchers aim was to determine the extent to which the practices and values of business leadership are universal (i.e., are similar globally), and the extent to which they are specific to just a few societies (Grove, 2007). The first question addressed by the researchers was which measurement standards (“independent variables”) to use to be precise about the similarities and differences among various societal and organizational cultures. Their efforts yielded nine “cultural dimensions” that serve as their standard of measurement (House et al., 2004). In addition, a key finding of the GLOBE Project is a set of “culturally endorsed leadership theory dimensions.” These dimensions are the summary indicators of the characteristics, skills, and abilities that are perceived around the world as *contributing to*, or as *inhibiting*, outstanding business leadership. When individuals think about effective leader behaviours, they are more influenced by the value they place on the desired future than their perception of current realities. Their results, therefore, suggest that leaders are seen as the society’s instruments for change. They are seen as the embodiment of the ideal state of affairs (House et al., 2004, pp. 275-6). We use the same measurement standards to obtain cultural and leadership dimensions for Kenya and Ethiopia.

- **Assumption 1:** An expatriate manager needs to know the social culture and leader behaviours of the host nation to facilitate the adjustment process
- *Aim 1: To determine societal culture and leader behaviour of the host nation considered to be essential to expatriate managers' adjustment.*
- **Question 1:** What knowledge of the host nation's societal culture and leader behaviour facilitates a smooth socio-cultural adjustment for the expatriate managers?

In a study of culture such as this one, other theories need to be applied to explain the various aspects of culture and leadership that the expatriate manager and immediate subordinates have to encounter; these include the motivation and leadership theories.

3.5.1.2 Motivation and Leader Behaviour Theories

A) Leader Motivation Theory

It is a theory of non-conscious motives originally advanced by McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953). The theory, in its most general form asserts that the essential nature of long term and complex human motivation can be understood in terms of four implicit (non-conscious) motives: achievement, affiliation, and power (social influence) and responsibility⁴⁶. The theory also identifies three explicit (conscious) motives: related to achievement, affiliation and power that are predictive of short term, noncomplex behaviour (House et al, 2004: 16-17, 670-673).

In contrast to behavioural intention and conscious values, which are predictive of discrete task behaviours for short periods of time under constant situational forces (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1970) implicit motives are predictive of:

- a) motive arousal in the presence of particular stimuli;
- b) spontaneous behaviour in the absence of motive-arousal stimuli; and
- c) long term individual global behaviour patterns, such as social relationship patterns, citizenship behaviour, child bearing practices, and leadership styles.

These assertions are supported by substantial evidence (McClelland, 1985; McClelland, Koestner and Silverman, 1989; Spangler 1992). In this study, expatriate managers may have

⁴⁶ Responsibility is not formally considered a motive, but a disposition. While this measure reflects a disposition toward socially responsible behaviour, Winter (1991) does not claim it to be a motive (House et al., 2002.p. 55). For purposes of this study, we refer to it as a disposition.

different motives as they accept a foreign assignment and as they interact with host nationals. They may be high power oriented individuals motivated to acquire and exercise social influence (Winter, 1991) and concerned about making an emotional impact on others, influencing their behaviour, and attaining reputation and status (Spangler, 1992). This personalized leadership could result in personal dominance and authoritarian behaviour, showing more partiality towards ingratiating followers (Fodor and Smith, 1982) and evaluating others as more negative (Watson, 1974). Secondly, the expatriate manager with responsibility disposition will have a strong tendency towards the moral use of power (Winter and Barenbaum, 1985). Responsibility motivated expatriate managers are theoretically collectively and socially oriented, personally controlled and non-impulsive (McClelland 1975; Winter, 1991). Thirdly, those with highly affiliative motivation have a strong non-conscious concern for establishing, maintaining and restoring close personal relationships with others (Heyns, Veroff, and Atkinson, 1958; McClelland, 1985). Finally, achievement motivation is a concern for long-term involvement both in competition against some standard of excellence, and in unique accomplishment (McClelland et al. 1958; McClelland, 1985). Litwin and Stringer (1968) demonstrated experimentally that work groups whose managers engage in achievement-oriented behaviour were more effective than managers who did not. Given the above theory and empirical findings we make the following assumption and aim:

- **Assumption 2:** Expatriate managers have various motives for accepting an overseas assignment and during the assignment; this will be reflected in their behaviours.
- **Aim 2:** *To identify expatriate managers' motives and leadership behaviours in the host country.*
- **Question 2:** What expatriate managers' motives and leadership behaviours are portrayed to immediate subordinates?

B) Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT)

The theory states that: individuals have implicit beliefs, convictions and assumptions concerning attributes and behaviours that distinguish leaders from followers, effective leaders from ineffective leaders and moral leaders from evil ones (House et al, 2004:16). These beliefs, convictions and assumptions are referred to as individual implicit theories of leadership. The major assertions of implicit leadership theory are expressed in the following propositions:

- i) *Leadership qualities are attributed to individuals, and those individuals are accepted as leaders on the basis of the degree of congruence between the leaders behaviours they enact and the implicit leadership theory held by the attributes.*

- ii) *Implicit leadership theories constrain, moderate, and guide the exercise of leadership, the acceptance of leaders, the perception of leaders as influential, acceptable, and effective, and the degree to which leaders are granted status and privileges (Ibid., p.16)*

Substantial experimental evidence supports this theory (Hanges, Braverman and Rentsch, 1991; Hanges et al, 1997; Lord and Maher, 1999; Sipe and Hanges, 1997). Responses to the GLOBE leadership questionnaire reflect the culturally endorsed implicit theory of leadership of the 62 societies studied. Our study includes Kenya and Ethiopia in the responses. Evidence of this is that there is a high and significant within-society agreement with respect to questions concerning the effectiveness of leader attributes and behaviour. Further, aggregated leadership scores were significantly different among the societies studied. Thus, each society studied was found to have a unique profile with respect to the culturally endorsed implicit theory of leadership (House et al, 2004: 66-67).

In general, implicit leadership theories are cognitive schemas that are used to categorise a target person as a leader or not a leader. Once a person is perceived as a leader, his or her leadership attempts are more likely to elicit a positive response on the part of the perceiver (follower) (ibid, p.66). The fit between the perceived attributes of a target person and the ILT held by the follower influences the leadership effectiveness of the target person. ILTs are culturally endorsed, i.e. they differ across societal cultures. The extent to which culturally endorsed ILTs differ should render expatriate leadership more or less influential (ibid, p.67).

C) Value-Belief Theory

According to this theory, the values and beliefs held by members of cultures influence the degree to which the behaviours of individuals, groups and institutions within cultures are enacted, and the degree to which they are viewed as legitimate, acceptable, and effective (Hofstede, 1980, Triandis, 1995). The nine GLOBE cultural dimensions reflect this theory and McClelland's theory of Human Motivation and Economic Development (McClelland, 1985). The Human, Power distance and performance orientation of cultures are conceptually analogous to the affiliative, power and achievement motives in McClelland's theory of Human Motivation. The Study tested the assumption that middle managers' reports of explicit motive, if aggregated to the societal or organizational level, function in the same way that McClelland assets implicit motives function. Whereas McClelland's theory is a theory of motivation the GLOBE theory is a theory of motivation resulting from cultural forces.

D) The Integrated Theory

The central proposition of the integrated theory is that the attributes and entities that differentiate a specified culture are predictive of organizational practices and leader attributes and behaviours that are most frequently enacted and most effective in that culture (House et al, 2004:17, 66). The integrated theory also consists of the following propositions that are relevant to our study:

1. *Societal cultural norms of shared values and practices affect leader's behaviour:* This assertion is supported by substantial empirical evidence (Dorfman, 2004; House, Wright, and Aditya, 1997; Schein, 1992; Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Goldstein, and Smith, 1995). Dominant cultural norms induce global leader behaviour patterns and organizational practices that are expected and viewed as legitimate.
2. *Organizational culture and practices also affect leader's behaviour:* Over time, founders and subsequent leaders in organizations respond to the organizational culture and alter their behaviours and leader styles accordingly (Lombardo, 1983; Schein, 1992; Trice and Beyer, 1984). Expatriate managers who have founded NGO's in Kenya and Ethiopia, are changed by the dynamics of the organization.
3. *Societal culture and organizational culture and practices influence the process by which people come to share implicit theories of leadership:* Over time, Culturally Implicit Leadership Theories (CLT) profiles are developed in each culture and practices in response to both societal and organizational culture and practices. CLT profiles are composed of six leadership dimensions (House et al, 2004:18).
4. *Leader acceptance is a function of interaction between CLTs and leader attributes and behaviours:* House et al, (2004:18) point out that leader attributes and behaviours that are congruent with CLTs will be more accepted than those that are not. Consequently, leaders who are not accepted by members of their organization will find it more difficult and arduous to influence these members than leaders who are accepted.

In general, the differentiating values and practices of each culture will be predictive of the leader attributes and behaviours and organizational practices that are most frequently enacted. Some of these propositions could be applied to expatriation where culture and leadership is at the heart of expatriate managers who are leaders in cultures other than their own. Societal cultural practices and values will affect the expatriate's behaviour and this will impact on

their immediate subordinates affecting organizational commitment, motivation and satisfaction.

- **Assumption 3:** Immediate subordinates react to their expatriate managers' motives and behaviour either positively or negatively as regards their commitment to their organization, their motivation and job satisfaction.
- *Aim 3: To identify immediate subordinates' reactions to expatriate managers' motives and behaviours.*
- **Question 3:** What impact do expatriate managers' motives and behaviours have on the psychological states of immediate subordinates?

From a scientific and theoretical perspective, the goal of science is to develop universally valid theories, laws, and principles and because of this, there is a need for leadership and organizational theories that transcend cultures (House et al., 1997). Yet, there are inherent limitations in transferring theories across cultures. What works in one culture may not work in another culture (Yukl, 2006). In addition, the expectations of expatriates and subordinates play a vital part in the adjustment process that is why the met expectations theory is important for this study.

3.5.1.3 Met Expectations

Another theory important to this research is "The theory of met expectations". It proposes that the more congruent an individual's expectations are with the individual's reality once on the job, the greater the individual's satisfaction and adjustment (Porter and Steers, 1973; Wanous, 1980, 1992). Little research has been conducted investigating met expectations in the context of global assignments (Black, 1992; and Stroh et al. 1998, for exceptions). Since global assignments differ in culture, values and other characteristics of the host country from the expatriate's home country, the relevance of pre-departure training will be related to more accurate expatriate manager expectations. The expectations may result from the attitudes and perceptions the manager has about the host nation. Although it is possible for individuals to make actual behavioural changes before, and in anticipation of assignment in a foreign country, it seems more likely that anticipatory changes will mainly consist of cognitive adjustments (Black and Gregersen, 1991).

Adjustment theorists (Ashford and Taylor 1990, Brett 1980; Louis, 1980) have argued that accurate expectations will in general facilitate adjustment to the actual circumstances. Louis (1980) points out that this is because accurate expectations reduce the chance of surprises and their associated uncertainty. Thus, one would expect accurate work expectations to have their most positive relationship with in-country work. Accurate interaction expectations have their most positive relationship with in-country interaction expatriate adjustment and accurate general expectations will have positive relationship with general environment expatriate adjustment.

Various stage models of organizational socialization (Feldman, 1976, Porter et al, 1995, Wanous 1980, 1992) all assume that unmet expectations cause a variety of post entry adjustment problems. A meta analysis by Wanous et al (1992) found that the met expectations are related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intent to remain, job performance and job survival than unmet expectation. In the case of expatriates, in particular, Black (1992) found that accurate expectations were related to higher levels of repatriation adjustment and job performance, compared to inaccurate expectations. In this study, expatriate managers were asked about their expectations and whether or not these were met. There were varying responses which will be discussed in the findings chapter.

- **Assumption 4:** Cross cultural training is necessary in the adjustment process
- **Aim 4:** *To determine whether or not cross cultural training received by expatriate managers is sufficient and necessary for adjustment to the new culture.*
- **Question 4:** Do INGO expatriate managers to Kenya and Ethiopia receive appropriate training?

Finally, we consider an important factor in the adjustment process especially in communitarian societies, that of personality.

3.5.2 Multicultural Personality Traits

Van der Zee and Van Oudehoven (2000; 2003) with the use of a multicultural personality questionnaire developed as a multidimensional instrument and aimed at measuring multicultural effectiveness show that several skills and traits may underlie executive success in an international environment. Although several authors have stressed the potential usefulness of personality scales for predicting international success (e.g. Deller, 1997; Ones and Viswesvaran, 1997), empirical research in this field is scarce.

The Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ) was designed to cover more narrowly the aspects of broader traits that are relevant to multicultural success (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000, p. 292). The question is: Which specific personality traits determine whether an employee will be multi-culturally effective? Literature reveals a large number of factors that have proven to be critical to expatriate success; Arthur and Bennet, (1995) mention family situation, flexibility, relational skills and extra-cultural openness; Kets de Vries and Mead (1991) give factors such as open-mindedness, self confidence, ability to deal with people and curiosity; while Hannigan (1990) mentions comparable traits: cultural empathy, openness for ambiguity, flexibility combined with perseverance and tolerance. It is important to note that, the majority of these studies are purely speculative or based on interviews with experts who are asked to rate the importance of success factors (Arthur and Bennett, 1995; McCall, 1994). Nevertheless, success traits are expected to hold regardless of the specific culture of the host country (e.g. McCall, 1994). In using the MPQ we selected five factors that have been suggested by Van der Zee and Van Oudehoven to be relevant to the success of expatriates: cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility.

Although culture can be defined as a pattern of behaviours acquired, transferred and shared as a blueprint of future behaviour (Kluckhohn and Kroeberg, 1952), it also includes a set of shared values that direct that behaviour. Therefore, in order to function effectively within a strange culture the individual has to acquire the blueprint of that specific culture (Aryee, 1997). A trait of relevance to this ability to “*read a specific culture*” is *cultural empathy* also referred to as sensitivity (Hawes and Kealey, 1981) and most frequently mentioned trait of cultural effectiveness (Arthur and Bennett, 1995; Cleveland, Mangone and Adams, 1960; Ruben, 1970). According to Ruben, cultural empathy is the capacity to clearly project an interest in others, as well as to obtain and to reflect a reasonably complete and accurate sense of another’s thoughts, feelings, and/or experiences (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000, p. 293). It is the ability to empathize with the feelings, thoughts, and behaviours of members from different cultural groups. Hawes and Kelly (1981) present empirical evidence for the predictive value of cultural empathy or sensitivity.

A second relevant trait to acquiring the rules and values of a new culture is “*open-mindedness*”. This trait refers to an open and unprejudiced attitude towards out group members and towards different cultural norms and values (Arthur and Bennet, 1995). This trait can be classified among the relational skills and use items such as non judgementalness,

racial/ethnic tolerance and tolerance to measure it. Harris (1973) found “interest in the local people” as one of the predictors of success, while Hammer et al, (1978) and Ronen (1989) mention “freedom from prejudice” as an important attitude associated with multicultural effectiveness (Van der Zee and Oudenhoven, 2000, p. 294).

A third relevant trait is emotional stability. This dimension is not very often referred to in the literature in relation to multicultural effectiveness. Tung (1981) in his study of expatriates identifies emotional stability as an important trait for overseas success across different functions. Hammer et al, (1978) mention ability to deal with psychological stress as a key trait of intercultural effectiveness. This includes the ability to deal with frustration, stress, anxiety, divergent political systems, pressure to conform, social alienation, financial problems, and interpersonal conflict. Church (1982), in his study shows that the ability to deal with stress is an important trait. Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2003, p.294) define emotional stability as “the tendency to remain calm in stressful situations versus the tendency to show strong emotional reactions under stressful circumstances”.

Fourth, flexibility is another trait that several authors stress as important in multicultural effectiveness (Arthur and Bennett, 1995; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963; Hanvey, 1976; Ruben and Kealey, 1979; Torbiorn, 1982). The expatriate manager has to be able to switch easily from one strategy to another, because familiar ways of handling things will not necessarily work in a new cultural environment. This trait is particularly important when the expatriate manager’s expectations of the situation in the host country do not correspond with the actual situation. Some of the elements of this trait include; the ability to learn from mistakes and adjust behaviour whenever it is required, which are associated with the ability to learn from new experiences. According to Spreitzer et al. (1997), this ability to learn from experiences seems to be of critical importance to multicultural effectiveness.

We therefore, make the following assumption and derive our fifth aim:

- **Assumption 5:** An expatriate manager who processes intercultural personality traits will adjust more easily in a new culture.
- **Aim 5:** *To determine whether or not cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility will contribute to adaptability to Kenyan and Ethiopian cultures.*
- **Question 5:** What personality traits of expatriate managers are suitable for adjustment in Kenya and Ethiopia especially to work and immediate subordinates?

In conclusion, the five aims derived from these theories guide the investigation and explanation of this study's research objectives. What we intend to achieve can be outlined in the following objectives:

- a. To find out whether or not culture makes a difference in expatriate managers' adjustment and subordinate reactions in Kenya and Ethiopia.
- b. To find out the impact of expatriate managers' motives and behaviour on their immediate subordinates.
- c. Explore whether or not Cross Cultural Training is received and its impact on Expatriate Managers
- d. Explore which of the five personality traits are suitable for adjustment and subordinate interaction in Kenya and Ethiopia
- e. Explore from Expatriate managers' own experience which factors influence expatriate adjustment and management

Questionnaires were administered and interview questions were used to collect data which was analysed in order to achieve the objectives. The discussion on theories and derivation of aims suggests that expatriate managers' adjustment is affected by various factors including cultural practices and values, motives and behaviours, and personality of the expatriate and that these have an impact on immediate subordinates. Therefore, there is need for an understanding of each other's culture and accepting differences in work values, socialization, and view of life (Selmer, 2001; Forster, 1999; Hofstede, 1990; Lee, 2005). Expatriate managers' behaviour is expected to have an impact on subordinate's job satisfaction, motivation and organizational commitment (House et al, 2002; Suleiman et al, 2002).

3.6 Theoretical Model

Expatriation adjustment as mentioned in the previous chapter involves movement between countries rather than within a country. Adjustment theorists (Thorbiorn, 1982; Black et al, 1991) have argued that moving into a new environment creates a significant level of uncertainty and that people in general have a need to reduce that uncertainty. This can be done by predictive control and behavioural control. Predictive control is the ability to make sense of, or predict one's environment in terms of:

- a) the ability to predict how one is expected to behave and
- b) the ability to understand and predict rewards and punishments associated with specific behaviours (Bell and Straw, 1989).

Behavioural control is the ability to control one's own behaviours that have an important impact on the current environment. Expatriate managers in Kenya and Ethiopia are expected to control any of their behaviours that is not appropriate and be sensitive to the reactions of their immediate subordinates.

An integration of relocation adjustment, expatriate adjustment and individual control theoretical foundations might be stated as;

- a) individuals establish behavioural routines based on their perceptions of expectations, reward and punishment contingencies, and preferences for certain outcomes (Hogan and Goodman, 1990)
- b) once confronted with new and unfamiliar situations, established routines are broken and the individual's sense of control is reduced (Copeland and Griggs, 1985)
- c) individuals attempt to re-establish a sense of control by reducing the uncertainty in the new situation through predictive and /or behavioural control (Caliguiri, 2000).

Therefore, these factors that influence uncertainty and loss of control would be expected to be relevant in the adjustment process. In general, those factors that reduce uncertainty would facilitate adjustment, while those factors that increase uncertainty would inhibit adjustment. In this study, personality traits that reduce uncertainty are expected to facilitate adjustment.

Conceptually, this study considers expatriate managers and their subordinates in, international non-governmental organizations in Kenya and Ethiopia. It examines cross cultural leadership in international Human Resource Management with reference to expatriate managers/directors. Various factors affect their adjustment to international assignments and have impact on subordinates. The cultural differences between the host and expatriates' culture are expected to affect adjustment; the greater the difference, the more difficult the adjustment (Selmer, 2004; Lee, 2005). The expatriate manager's characteristics many of which are a result of culture and personality traits not only affect psychological and socio-cultural adjustment (Ayman, 1997), but also affects subordinates' organizational commitment, motivation and job satisfaction (House et al, 2002).

From the theoretical discussion we formulate the framework in Fig. 3.2 which depicts the two parts of this study; first, that the societal culture and culturally implicit leadership theories are expected to affect expatriate manager's adjustment. Both parent and host country cultures are considered and their cultural fit indices calculated. The more similar the cultures are, the better it will be for those assigned to these countries. The second part deals with the expatriate

characteristics as antecedents of adjustment; these include personality traits, leader motives and behaviour. Depending on the expatriate manager, these will affect immediate subordinates. These immediate subordinates are project or program managers and their reactions are expected to affect performance and the expatriate managers' adjustment process. In general, there is interconnectedness between culture, motives, behaviour, subordinate reactions and expatriate managers' adjustment.

Fig. 3.3: is a model of expatriate managers' adjustment and subordinate reactions. We investigate whether culture influences expatriate behaviour and how that behaviour together with expatriate's motives have an impact on subordinates in the host country. The level of adjustment will also depend on the expatriate manager's personality traits. The reaction of immediate subordinates to the expatriate managers' motives and behaviour will affect their organizational commitment, motivation and job satisfaction.

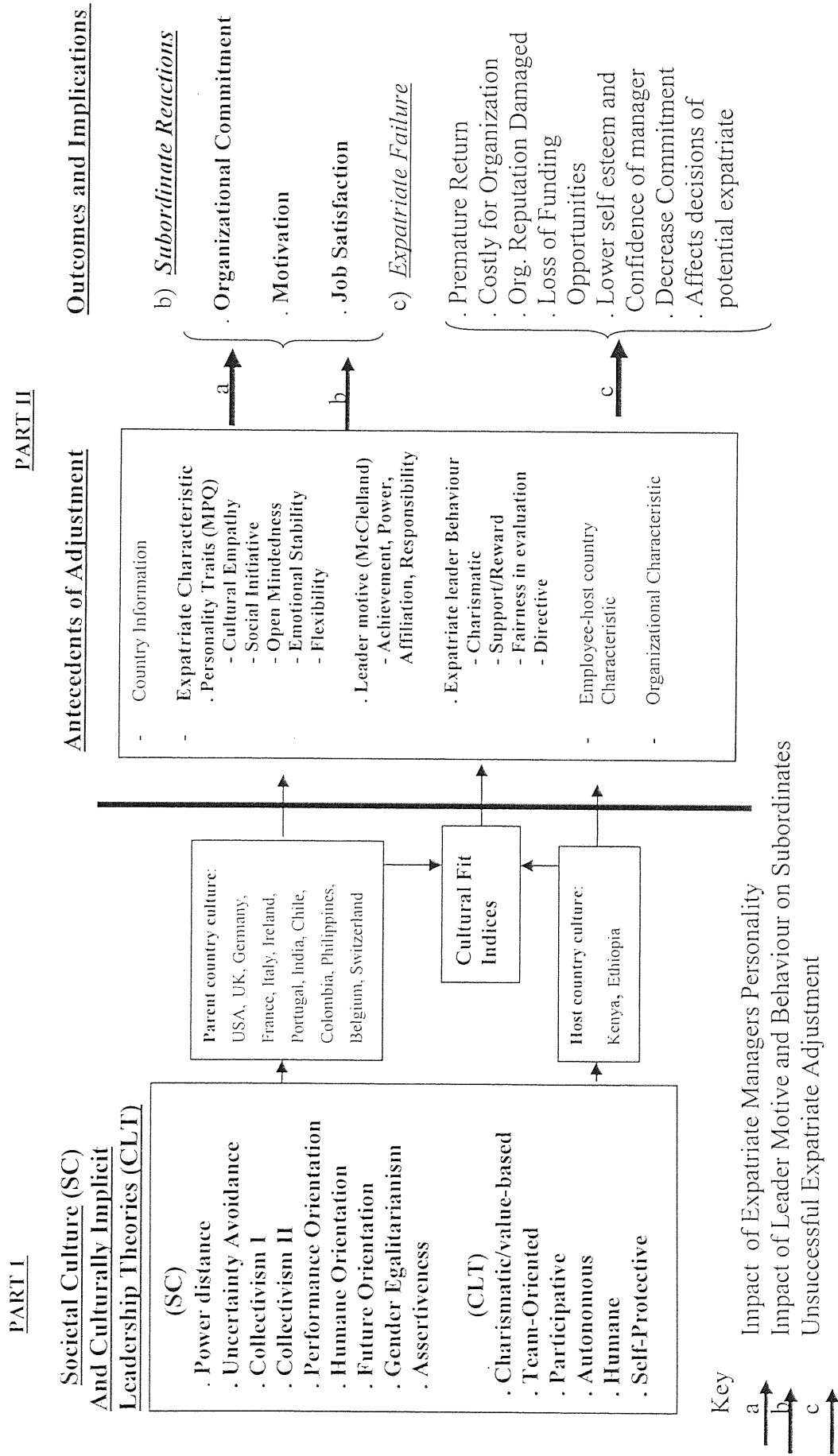
In order to achieve the set objectives, two approaches were used. Questionnaires were administered and interviews conducted. This study on culture and leadership blends qualitative and quantitative research methods.

3.7 Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches

According to Creswell (1994:5) "qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials case study, personal experience, introspective, life story, interview, observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts that describe routine and problematic moments and meaning in individuals lives". This study conducted semi structured interviews to obtain data on expatriate managers regarding their experience in Kenya and Ethiopia. Data was also collected from INGOs where the expatriate managers work in both countries.

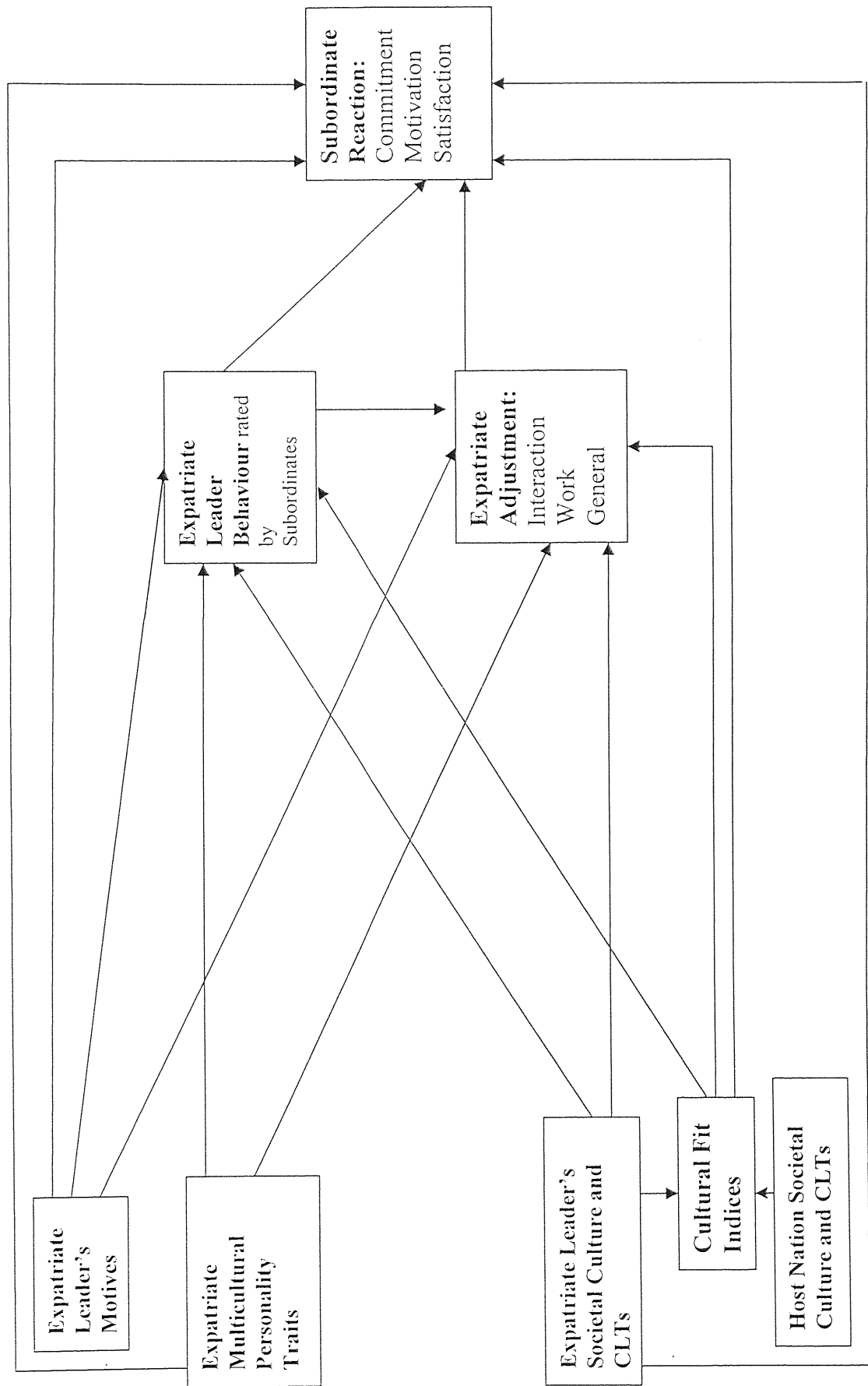
We chose this approach to study expatriate managers in their natural setting through interviews. This involved going out to the INGOs, getting access, and gathering data (Miles and Huberman, 2000). If expatriate managers were removed from their setting, it would lead to contrived findings that are out of context. The approach was also chosen to emphasize the researcher's role as an active learner who can tell the story from the expatriates' view rather than as an "expert" who passes judgment on them (Bryman, 2001). More importantly, it was chosen because of the usefulness of in-depth knowledge and elaboration of images and concepts gained from the qualitative methods. We thought that qualitative methods may

Figure 3.2: Theoretical Framework of Expatriate Adjustment and Its Impact on Subordinates



Bold print indicates topics dealt with in this study

Figure 3.3: Model of Expatriate Managers' Adjustment (Motives, Behaviours, Personality) and Subordinates' Reactions



The arrows indicate the direction of the association between the variables.

capture important facts missed by more general quantitative studies (Ragin, 1994).

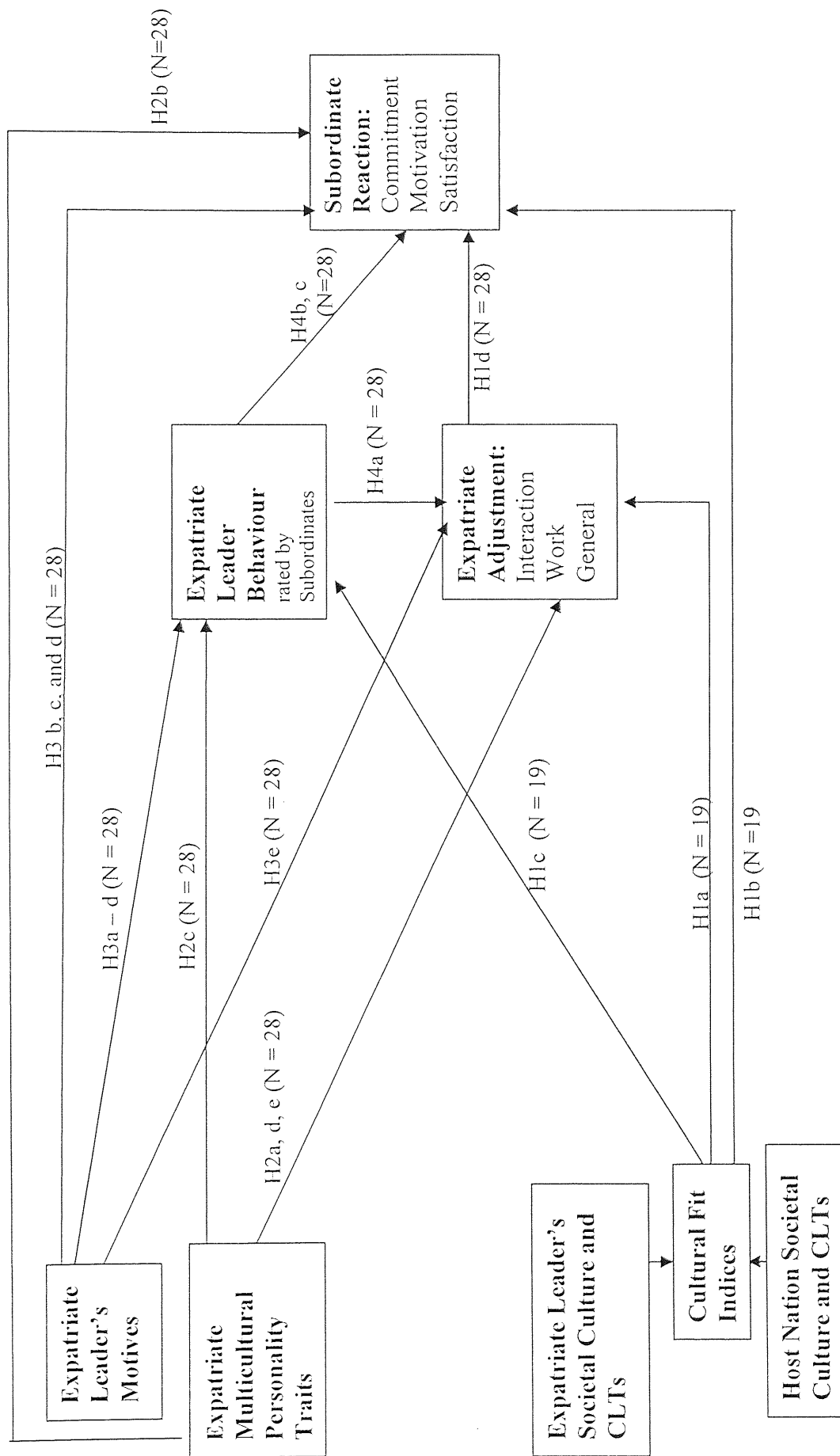
We also used the quantitative approach. In this approach, the researcher's role is to observe and measure, and care is taken to keep the researcher from "contaminating" the data through involvement with the research subject. Researchers' objectivity is of utmost concern (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992:6). Questionnaires were used to collect data on societal culture and leader behaviours, expatriate adjustment and personality traits and subordinates' rating of expatriate manager's behaviour and their own reactions.

The first part of the research explores the cultural practices and values in the two countries and confirms or adds to what has already been found. This is not an exact replication of Hofstede's study done more than twenty years ago and what others like Trompenaars (1984) have done or the GLOBE Study (2004). But like them this study explores the differences in thinking and social action that exist between members of the two societies. The GLOBE Study is applied to the countries in question, and its questionnaires were used to collect data for Kenya and Ethiopia for reasons explained earlier. The advantage of using what has been used in other parts of the world is that the results can be used for comparative purposes. The quantitative part of this study tested hypothesis to find association among variables and whether some were predictive of expatriate adjustment, their behaviours and subordinate reactions. What follows is a formulation of hypothesis from societal culture, expatriate adjustment (leader motive, behaviour, personality) and its subordinates' reactions.

3.8 Hypothesis Formulation

Setting up and testing hypotheses is an essential part of statistical inference. In order to formulate such a test, usually some theory has been put forward, either because it is believed to be true or because it is to be used as a basis for argument, but has not been proved, for example, claiming that "culture influences leadership" (House et al, 2004:66). In the next section, we formulate hypotheses that will be tested in chapter five. In the sections that follow, hypotheses are formulated regarding societal culture, expatriate adjustment (motives, behaviours, and personality) and subordinate reactions. Societal culture and CLTs includes cultural practices, values and leader behaviours in Kenya and Ethiopia and expatriate managers' home countries. Figure 3.4 shows the complete model with all hypotheses and is structured into sub-groups of variables and their relationships. There are four main hypotheses labelled H1 to H4 with sub-hypotheses a-d.

Figure 3.4: Model and Hypotheses



Key: Figure 3.4: "H" indicates hypothesis; 1 - 4 and sub-hypotheses a to e

Hypotheses H1 refers to societal culture and cultural fit and their effects on expatriate managers' adjustment, their behaviours and subordinate psychological states of commitment, motivation and satisfaction mentioned here as subordinate reactions. Societal culture includes nine societal practices and values, and six global leadership behaviours. The cultural fit indices are calculated from the expatriate and host societal cultures. Hypothesis H2 refers to multicultural personality traits (cultural empathy, emotional stability, open mindedness, social initiative and flexibility) and other characteristics such age, gender, marital status, years of service and cross cultural training and their effects on adjustment, behaviour and subordinate reactions. Hypotheses H3 refers to leader motives; achievement, affiliation, power and responsibility disposition and their effects on adjustment, behaviour and subordinate reactions. Hypotheses H4 refers to expatriate behaviours; charismatic value/based, support/reward, and fair evaluation and directive behaviours (House et al., 2002) and their effects on adjustment and subordinate reactions. As we formulate hypotheses, figures 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7 will give a more detailed illustration of hypotheses H1 to H4. We start with societal culture and its effects on adjustment, behaviour and subordinate reactions.

3.8.1. Societal Culture

The first part of this research deals with societal culture. Culture has a highly pervasive influence on the behaviour of individuals (Hofstede, 1980, 1991). A person's perceptions, attitudes, motivations, values, learning experience and personality, to a large extent, are shaped by culture (Hofstede, 1980; House et al, 2004:29-30). We rarely think about our culture unless we are put in a situation where we are in a cultural minority. Our cultures operate largely at an unconscious level (Forster, 2000; Harvey, 1998; Tung, 1982).

Culture includes many things, such as facial expressions, use of personal space, posture, gestures, personal appearance, etiquette, body contact, and appropriate conduct in dealing with men and women (Forster 2000a: 64). Understanding and respecting cultural differences are essential if we are to adapt to working and living in another culture, for example, in most African cultures, authority such as a managerial position, is respected and is usually unchallenged (Jackson, 2004:16-24). In addition, attitudes on gender, marital status and the time people have to know each other will affect relationships such as expatriate managers and their subordinates.

What we think and how we choose to act is a result of what we have been taught in our culture (Harvey 1998). Hence, an expatriate manager who has been highly successful in his/her culture may find it difficult, if not impossible, to function in another culture, unless he/she is aware of the significant cultural differences (Selmer, 2001a:916-919). Interaction between the expatriate manager and subordinates causes the realization of these differences and similarities in practices and values (House et al, 2004:30-32). Therefore, we can assume that;

Hypothesis 1: *Cultural fit between expatriate manager's nation and the host nation will have an impact on expatriates adjustment, their behaviour and subordinate psychological states of commitment, motivation and job satisfaction.*

Fig. 3.5 refers to the main sub-hypotheses formulated from hypothesis 1. When N=19 this represents societal level on 19 countries (of expatriates in Kenya and Ethiopia) while N=28 is at the individual level, the number of expatriate managers.

Expatriate managers from countries with similar or close societal culture to the host culture are expected to adjust more easily than those whose cultural distance is greater (Hofstede, 1980, 2002). This is measured by the cultural distance of practices and values of the countries studied and the adjustment of the expatriate to work, interaction and general adjustment. We advance the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1(a): *the greater the cultural misfit between the expatriate managers' culture and the host nation's culture, the greater the difficulty the expatriate managers will have in adjusting to the new culture.*

Hypothesis 1 (b): *the greater the cultural misfit between the expatriate managers' culture and the host nation's culture, the less positive will be subordinates' reactions in the commitment, motivation and job satisfaction.*

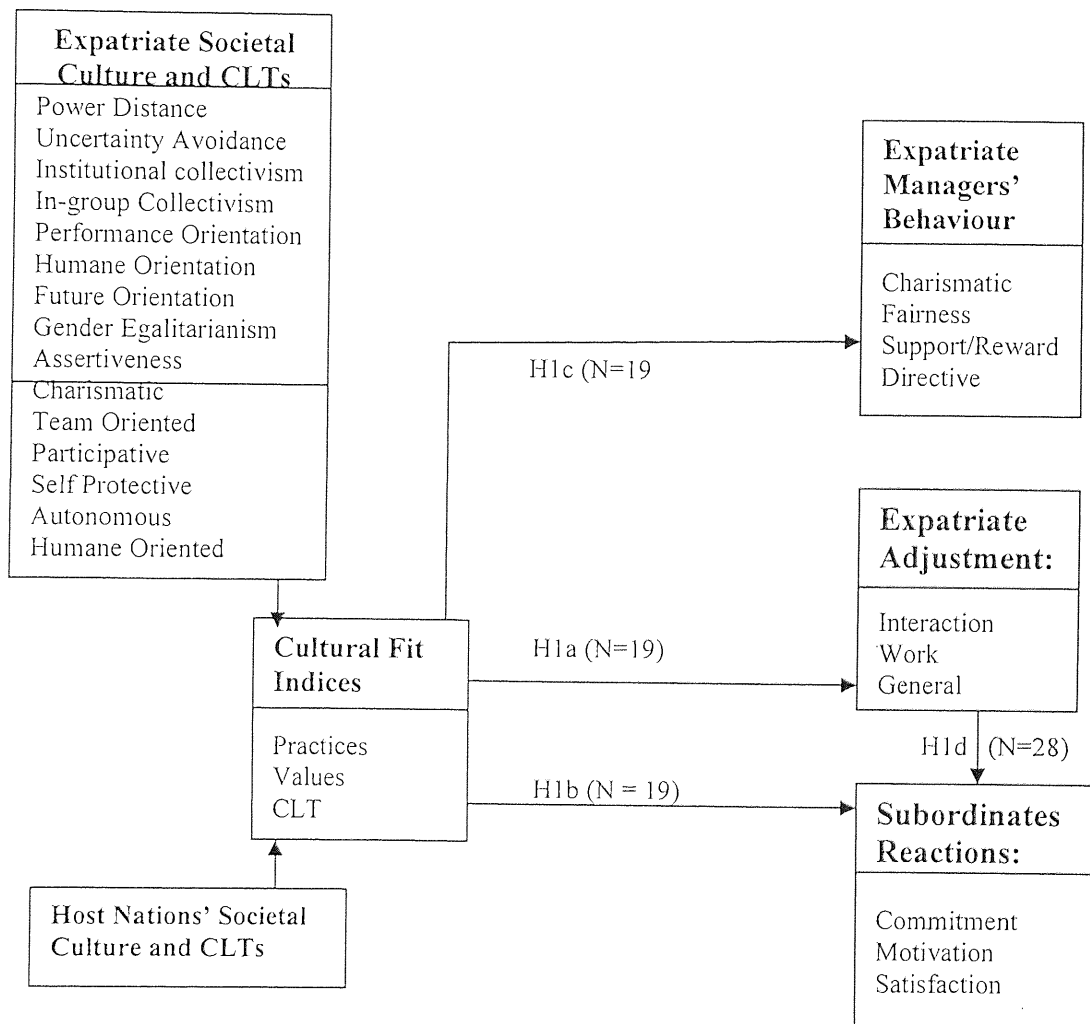
Hypothesis 1 (c): *the greater the cultural misfit between the expatriate managers' culture and the host nation's culture, the less positive expatriates' behaviour as perceived by subordinates.*

Expatriate managers who are successful at the various stages of adjustment at work and interactions generally have followers who view them positively and are satisfied with them

(Aycaan, 1997). This general success has an impact on followers' reactions. We therefore, formulate the following hypothesis;

Hypothesis 1(d): *the better expatriate managers' adjustment, the more positive subordinates' reactions in their commitment, motivation and job satisfaction.*

Figure 3.5 Hypothesis 1:
Cultural Distance and Its impact on Expatriates' Adjustment, Their Behaviour and Subordinates Reactions



It is expected that expatriate managers from home cultures that are similar to the host cultures (high culture fit) should report to have adjusted more smoothly. Smooth adjustment due to expatriates' cultural closeness should impact positively on subordinates commitment, motivation and satisfaction (House et al, 2002).

It is therefore, important for anyone embarking on an international assignment to be knowledgeable about the cultural aspects of the environment they are moving to. This indicates that the ability to adapt to new cultures is one of the most important elements of a

successful international assignment (Selmer, 2000; Tung, 1981; Ronen, 1989; Lee, 2005). Nevertheless, apart from culture which is at the societal level, there are individual level characteristics that may contribute to successful adjustment and positive subordinate reactions. These include expatriate personality, motives and behaviour, and are examined in the next sections in the context of expatriate managers' adjustment and subordinate reactions.

3.8.2 Expatriate Managers Adjustment and Subordinates Reactions

The second part of the research deals with expatriate managers' adjustment and subordinate reactions. Some empirical research has been done using various tools and methods; questionnaires, interviews, comparative studies, expatriate accounts of their experiences, and the discursive composition of academic texts (Aycan, 1997; Selmer, 2000; Peltonen, 1998; Polkinghorne, 1990; Cochran, 1990; Osman-Gani, 2001; Schermerhorn, 1999; House et al, 2002).

What we intend to accomplish in this section is formulate hypotheses at the individual level. This will cover the multicultural personality traits of the expatriates, their motives and behaviours. The derived hypotheses will be tested with regard to association or predictability of the traits, motives and behaviour variables on expatriate adjustment and subordinate reactions. We commence with the personality traits of the expatriate manager.

3.8.2.1. Personality of the Expatriate Manager

In addition to societal culture and the fit between home and host country, personality characteristics form another important variable which may have an impact on expatriate adjustment, their behaviours and subordinate reactions. Personality can be defined as "the complex of all attributes; behavioural, temperamental, emotional and mental – that characterize a unique individual" (Revelle and Loftus, 1992: 2). An individual may possess a variety of personality traits that are useful in different contexts. The interest of this study is traits useful in foreign assignments. The Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ) was used to find expatriate managers' personality traits because it helps individuals to predict better how they will respond to these challenges. It was developed as a multidimensional instrument aimed at measuring multicultural effectiveness and was used as an indicator of personality. The MPQ is a self assessment questionnaire that captures five aspects of multicultural personality traits that contribute to success in an international setting. It is a valid and reliable instrument for assessing personality factors relevant in working in an

international context and was used as an instrument for the selection of expatriates or as a diagnostic tool for assessing further training needs (Van Der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000, 2001). From this, the following hypothesis can be formulated:

Hypothesis 2: *Personality traits play an important role in expatriate adjustment and managers with cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility will adjust more easily in intercultural settings.*

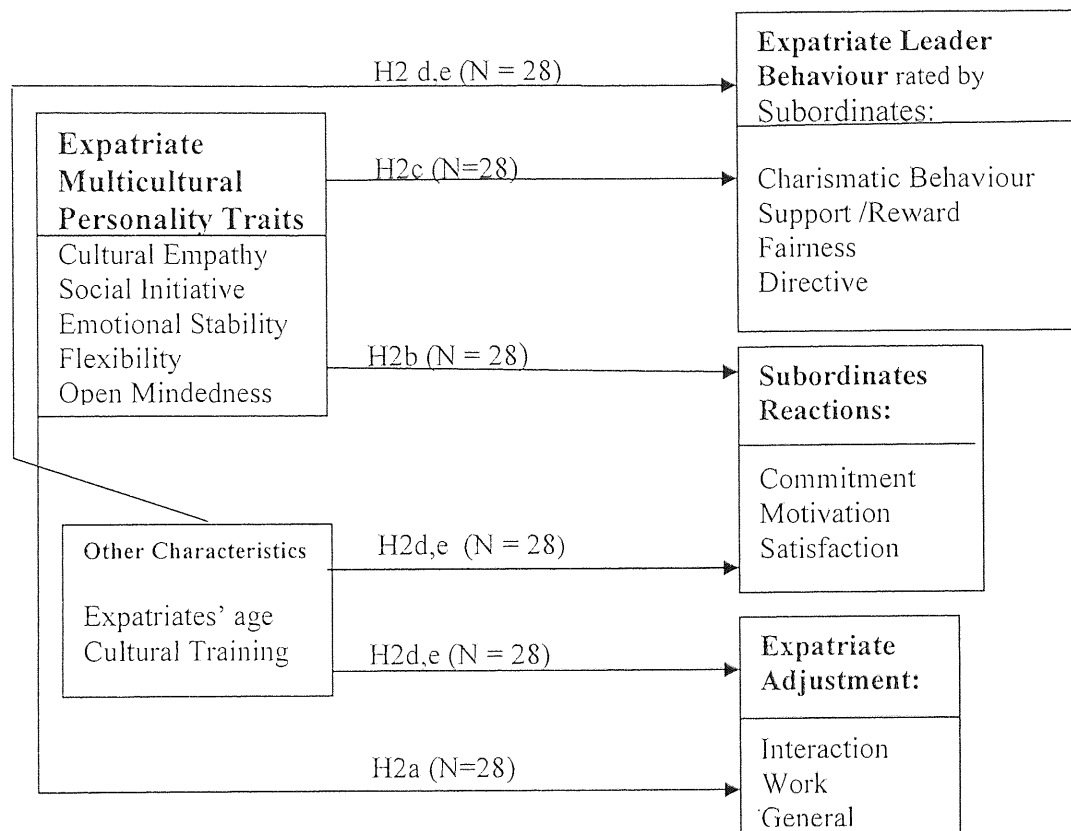
Fig. 3.6 shows the detailed hypotheses derived from expatriates' multicultural personality traits. They deal with associations of personality traits with expatriate adjustment, leader behaviour, and subordinate reactions. This study focuses on the five intercultural traits that have been detected as contributing to success in intercultural settings (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000, 2001): Cultural empathy, open-mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility. Cultural Empathy: is the dimension that refers to the ability to empathize with the feelings, thoughts and behaviours of members from different cultural groups (Aryee 1997). In this case, members of the host country are represented by immediate subordinates. Open-mindedness refers to being open and unprejudiced towards the host nation and towards their cultural norms and values (Harris, 1973; Ronen, 1989). The third dimension is Social Initiative which refers to a tendency to actively approach social situations and take initiative rather than wait and see. The fourth, Emotional Stability refers to a tendency to remain calm in stressful situations (Church, 1982, Armes and Ward, 1989). Finally, Flexibility refers to the ability to be able to switch easily from one strategy to another in intercultural situations because familiar ways of handling things may no longer work (Arthur and Bennett, 1995; Thorbiorn, 1982). A new situation should not be seen as a threat but a challenge. Other traits not included are perseverance, absence of dogmatism, tolerance, openness to ambiguity as Hannington's study found (Hannington, 1990). The following hypotheses were formulated to better understand the effects of multicultural personality traits on adjustment, leader behaviour and subordinate reactions.

5.2.2.1 Hypothesis 2 (a): *Multicultural personality traits (cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility) are positively related to the expatriate manager's adjustment.*

It is envisaged that subordinates will react favourably to expatriate managers that possess some or all of the five intercultural traits used (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2001). For

example, an expatriate possessing the cultural empathy trait will be able empathize with the feelings, thoughts and behaviours of his/her subordinates and thus act according. We expect

Figure 3.6: Hypothesis 2
Multicultural Personality Traits of Expatriate Managers



that subordinates will act react favourably to such behaviour as they perceive it to affect then positively. We advance the following hypotheses with regard to subordinate reactions:

Hypothesis 2 (b): *Multicultural personality traits (cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility) are positively related to subordinates commitment, job satisfaction, and motivation.*

Expatriates managers' motives for accepting or wanting the international assignment and depending on these motives which are manifested in the form of the leadership the expatriate displays, these will affect behaviour (House et al, 2002; McClelland, 1973). These behaviours perceived by the followers could be the result of the expatriate's personality (Van Der Zee et al., 2003). It is expected that personality traits of expatriate leaders will be related to their leadership behaviours which in this case were rated by their immediate subordinates. Immediate subordinates are likely to dislike directive behaviour since they may want autonomy in what they do and are responsible for projects. This is evidenced by the fact that

world wide findings from the GLOBE study show that societies want lower power distance (Javidan, et al, 2005)⁴⁷. They show how cultural differences can complicate the transfer of knowledge across borders and make recommendations on how executives can better manage the complex task of transferring knowledge across cultures. In this case, they expect power to be well distributed for example through delegation and consultation in order to accomplish organizational goals. Expatriate managers' charismatic, supportive and fair behaviours as perceived by subordinates are expected to receive positive subordinate reactions. This is evidenced by the study of CEO leaders and their immediate subordinates (House et al, 2002). We advance the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2(c): *High cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility are positively related to charismatic, supportive and fair behaviour and negatively related to directive behaviour.*

A characteristic worth investigation is age. It is a critical personal characteristic in African and Asian societies (Fang, 1998: 135-139; Worm, 1997:116; Mazrui, 1991; Dia, 1996). Respect for old age is particularly emphasized by African cultures where the older the person is, the more he or she is respected (Burgre and Offodile, 2001). It is also emphasized by traditional culture of character building of a great personality through life long learning and self – cultivation, on going initiation and traditional roles (Mbiti, 1997). Even in Western societies, growing older may be associated with increasing maturity (Heckhausen and Krueger, 1993; van Lange et al, 1997). Therefore, it is likely that older expatriates will find it easier to live and work in Kenya and Ethiopia since their suitability will be less in doubt by local people making it easier for them to adjust than younger expatriates. Therefore we formulate the hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2 (d): *Expatriate's age is positively associated with adjustment, their behaviours and subordinate reactions in Kenya and Ethiopia*

Finally, the expatriates who have received cross cultural training are expected to adjust more easily because their expectations are thought to be close to the reality of the assignment environment (Selmer, 1997, Forster, 2000). Because of the cultural awareness they receive in their training, they should behave and act appropriately in accordance to the norms of the new culture and interact better with their subordinates.

⁴⁷. They show how GLOBE findings can be used to better manage the content and process issues in knowledge transfers.

Hypothesis H2e: *Cross cultural training is positively related to expatriate adjustment, their behaviour and subordinate reactions*

In addition to personality traits and personal characteristics, expatriate managers' motives and behaviour can greatly affect their adjustment and the way subordinates react to their behaviour (Caliguiri, 2000; Forster, 1997; Pervin, 1993; Roetson, 1994). The next section examines motives and behaviour of the expatriate and formulates hypotheses based them. Fig. 3.7 refers to formulated hypotheses 3 and 4 regarding motives and behaviour in relation to adjustment and subordinate reactions.

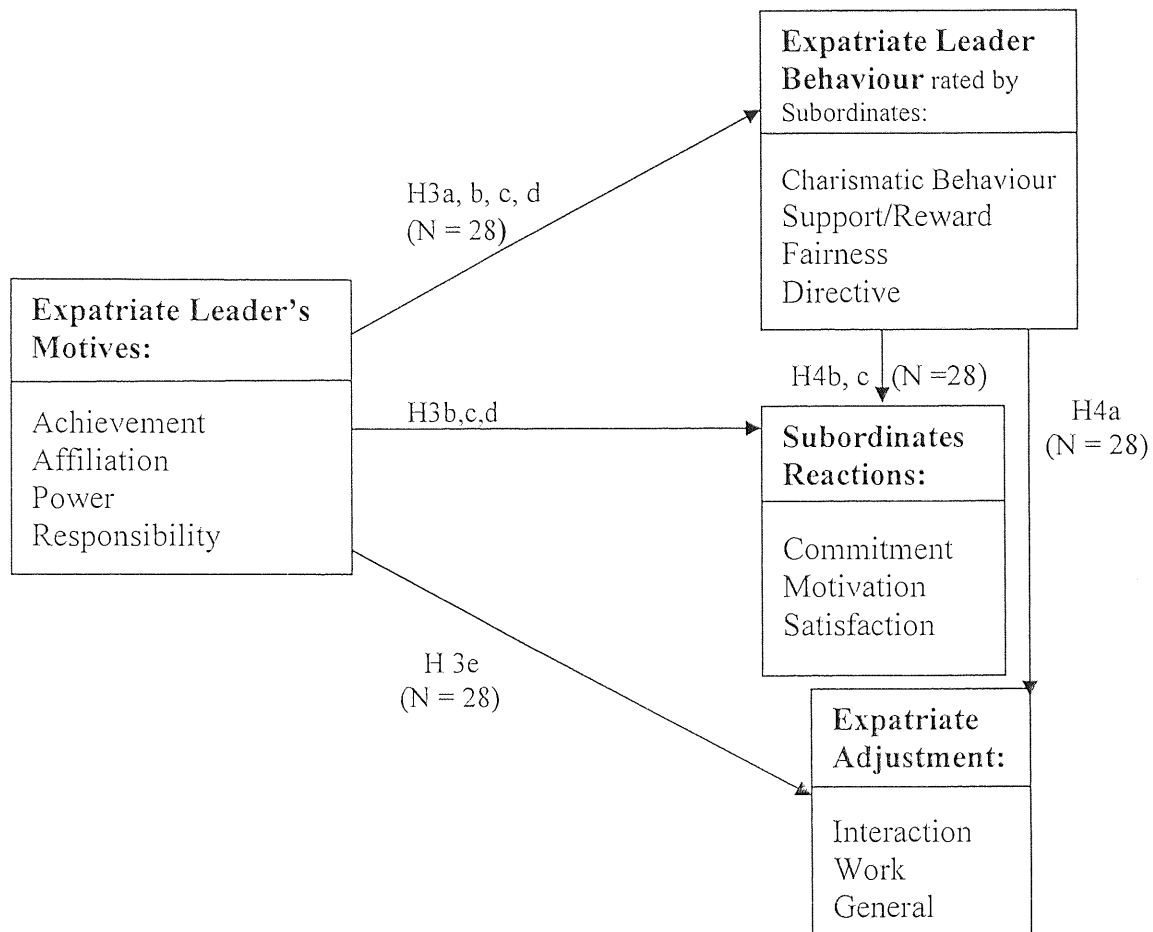
3.8.2.2 Expatriate Managers' Leader Motives

The crucial fact to grasp about leadership in any culture is that it is a complement to subordinate-ship (employee attitudes towards leaders) (Hofstede, 1980). In other words, perhaps, we concentrate too much on leaders and their unlikely ability to change styles at will; much depends on subordinates and their cultural conditioning, and that it is subordinate-ship to which the leader must respond. Hofstede (1980; 2000) points out that his research reflects the values of subordinates, not the values of CEOs.

It has been understood for some time that individual values and attitudes are related to work – related behaviours (Ajzen, 1991, Rockeach, 1979). Work on cross cultural contexts has increased our understanding of the diversity of value-attitude tendencies across cultures but also the implications for management of organizations. Expatriate managers success requires that the managers not only understand the cultures to which they are assigned, but also be able to apply that knowledge to the company, co-workers, and the environment through their leadership and communication practices (Hogan and Goodson, 1990). Therefore, managers need to know specific behaviours that are useful in the workplace.

House et al (2002) report a study of the effect of motives and behaviour of chief executives on the psychological states of immediate subordinates and their reports of top management effectiveness. The psychological states assessed are the subordinates satisfaction, motivation and organizational commitment. They advance hypothesis derived from five theories relevant to the motivation and behaviour of effective leaders (as discussed earlier in this chapter). Instead of chief executives, this study examined the effects of motives and behaviour of expatriate managers' on subordinates. Leader motives were measured on the basis of

Figure 3.7: Hypotheses 3 and 4
Expatriate Managers Motives and Behaviours



interviews and leader behaviour were measured on the basis of questionnaire responses from respective subordinates. In our formulation, hypothesis 3 deals with the impact of leader motives while hypothesis 4 with the impact of leader behaviour on adjustment and subordinate reactions.

Hypothesis 3: *Expatriate managers' leader motives will have an impact on expatriate adjustment, their behaviour as perceived by subordinates and subordinates' organizational commitment, motivation and job satisfaction (CMS).*

The detailed hypotheses that follow are derived from leader motivation theory.

Leader Motivation Theory: In this study, the theory concerns non-conscious motives and was originally advanced by David G. McClelland (1985). The theory in its general form asserts that the essential nature of human motivation can be understood in terms of four non-conscious motives: achievement, affiliation, power and responsibility (House et al, 2002).

Power Motivation: In theory, high power oriented individuals are non-consciously motivated to acquire and exercise social influence. They are also strongly concerned about making an emotional impact on others, influencing the behaviour of others, and attaining

reputation and status (Winter, 1991). Expatriate managers with high power motivation exercise personalized leadership which is based on personal dominance and authoritative behaviour and serves the self interest of the leader and is self-aggrandizing as well as exploitation of others (Fodor and Smith, 1982). They are also more assertive and directive, less cooperative and more deceitful (Terhune, 1968a, 1968b) and evaluate others as more negative (Watson, 1974). We advance the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3 (a): *Expatriate managers' power motivation is positively related to directive leadership as perceived by followers*

Moral Responsibility Disposition: The responsibility disposition is conceived as a strong tendency toward the moral use of power (Winter and Barenbaum, 1985). Individuals who have a high non-conscious responsibility disposition have a strong concern about the moral exercise of power and are averse to the use of power in an authoritarian, coercive, or manipulative way. They are also collectively and socially oriented, personally controlled and non-impulsive (McClelland, 1975, Winter, 1991). These individuals will be expected to have non-conscious concern for ethical, moral, and trustworthy leader behaviour, to behave in a manner that is consistent with this concern, and to be perceived accordingly by subordinates. Therefore, we advance the hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3(b): *Expatriate managers' responsibility motivation is positively related to charismatic leadership, leader fairness, leader supportive/reward behaviour perceived by followers (Expatriate Behaviours) and subordinates' commitment, motivation and job satisfaction (Subordinates' Reactions)*

Affiliative Motivation: Highly motivated managers are, theoretically, reluctant to monitor the behaviour of subordinates, to convey negative feedback to subordinates when required, to discipline them for violations of organizational policies (Winter, 1991). The reason is that these highly affiliative motivated managers have a strong non-conscious concern for establishing, maintaining, and restoring close personal relationships with others (Heyns, Veroff, and Atkinson, 1958; McClelland, 1985). Such managers are likely to be non assertive, to be permissive, and tend to be dependent on others for acceptance and approval (House et al, 2002:16). Spangler & House (1991) and House et al (1991) demonstrated that the affiliative motive is dysfunctional for U.S. presidential performance. Managers with low affiliation motivation are able to take forceful actions and make tough decisions without worrying about being disliked (McClelland, 1985b).

In addition, Managers low on this motivation may be less easily induced to make exceptions for the needs of individuals, which may be regarded as unfair by subordinates and create low morale (McClelland & Burnham, 1976; 2003). Those managers high on affiliation motivation may be more reluctant to discipline subordinates or to strictly monitor their behaviour and convey negative feedback (McClelland, 1985b). Based on this the following hypotheses is formulated:

Hypothesis 3 (c): *Expatriates managers' affiliative motivation is negatively related to expatriate behaviours as perceived by followers and Subordinate reactions*

Achievement Motivation: is a non-conscious concern for long-term involvement both in competition against some standard of excellence, and in unique accomplishment (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowel, 1958, McClelland, 1985). Achievement motivation theoretically facilitates performance in the management of small groups of physical or technical work where social influence and delegation of authority and responsibility is not critical. Litwin and Stringer (1968) demonstrated experimentally that work groups whose managers engaged in achievement-oriented behaviour were more effective than manager who did not. Viewed conceptually, the achievement motive could be seen as a characteristic of charismatic leaders, as highly achievement motivated leaders may inspire followers to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985) through setting high standards and demanding excellence. However, achievement motivation with its focus on personal success may also cause leaders to try to retain strong control over all possible aspects of their position rather than delegate responsibility and aim for personal rather than collective success (McClelland & Atkinson, 197; Spangler & House, 1991).

House et al (1991) found that achievement motivation of US presidents was inversely predictive of presidential charismatic leader behaviour and effectiveness. In later works on personality of the charismatic leader (House et al, 1997) the achievement motive no longer presented as such, as the relationship between motive and charismatic leadership seems less clear-cut than other motives.

According to House et al (2002:20), theoretically, high achievement motivated managers are prone to centralize decision making, perform critical functions themselves, hoard authority and responsibility, and meddle into the activities of subordinates in order to be personally involved in performing the work of the organization. Immediate subordinates who are responsible for projects may react negatively to a manager who meddles in their activities.

Therefore, although achievement motivation might at first glance seem to be an asset for charismatic leaders, helping them to set challenging goals, the available research suggests it does not play such a positive role and may even be a liability. (De Hoogh et al, 2005: 8). Highly achievement motivated leaders may focus on personal success and control to such an extent that it goes at the expense of their ability to enable and empower others to perform well (House et al, 1991; Judge & Bono, 2000). Therefore, we advance the hypotheses that:

Hypothesis 3(d): *Expatriate managers' achievement motivation is negatively related to charismatic leadership, leader fairness, leader supportiveness perceived by subordinates and subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction.*

Considering the above explanations on achievement, affiliation and responsibility motivations, we expect that high achievement managers will have difficulties in adjusting since they hoard authority and responsibility and meddle in activities of subordinates. Highly motivated managers are, theoretically, reluctant to monitor the behaviour of subordinates, and may find it demanding to interact with subordinates. Managers with high responsibility are collectively and socially oriented, personally controlled and non-impulsive (McClelland, 1975, Winter, 1991). We therefore expect them to adjust without much difficulty. We formulate the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3(e): *Expatriate adjustment is negatively related to achievement and affiliation motivations and positively related to responsibility motivation.*

3.8.2.3 Leader Behaviour

Leader behaviours in this study refer to: Charismatic, support-reward, directive, and fairness in evaluation leader behaviour. The main dimensions of charismatic leadership include; visionary, inspirational, self/sacrificing, role modelling, intellectual stimulation, integrity, decisive and performance oriented. Support-Reward includes Leader Consideration and Contingent Reward (recognition and approval). House et al (1999) give evidence of charismatic leadership and its influence on organizational executive behaviour. As previously mentioned, expatriate managers who possess charismatic, support/reward and fair behaviours are expected to be visionary, inspirational, considerate and fair in their dealings with subordinates (House et al, 2002) and this is expected to facilitate successful adjustment. These behaviours perceived by subordinates will most probably receive positive reactions from them since they are attributes to effective leadership (House et al, 2004:45).

According to the most recent version of Path-Goal Theory of leadership, (House, 1996), leaders who administer rewards contingent on performance in a fair manner will clarify expectancies of subordinates concerning work goals and rewards, and will effectively motivate subordinates. Leader consideration towards subordinates is also asserted to provide psychological support for subordinates (House et al, 2002).

Next, we consider fairness in evaluation behaviour. According to Adams (1963), equity theory asserts that when individuals perceive the ratio of their contribution to their rewards (intrinsic or extrinsic) to be unequal to the ratio of contributions to rewards of others, they will believe that they are treated unfairly. It is expected that under conditions of perceived unfairness subordinates will feel resentment, be de-motivated, will not support and may even resist attempts by leaders to influence them

We can advance the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4 (a): *Expatriate managers' charismatic, support/reward and fair leader behaviours as perceived by followers are positively related to expatriate adjustment.*

Hypothesis 4 (b): *Expatriate managers' charismatic leader behaviour, support/reward behaviour, and fairness as perceived by followers is positively related to subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction*

Regarding participative and directive leader behaviour, the Path-goal theory suggests that either of these behaviours can provide psychological structure and direction and therefore clarify subordinates' role demands. Theoretically, directive leader behaviour will be dysfunctional and participative leader behaviour will be functional when subordinates are highly involved in their work, perceive themselves as having a high level of task related knowledge and, and/or prefer a high level of autonomy (House et al, 2002; 1). Meta analysis of 13 relationships tested in prior studies provides support for these assertions (Wofford and Liska, 1993). Consistent with the most recent version of Path-Goal theory (House, 1996), leader directive behaviour is expected to have a negative effect on subordinates.

Consequently, the following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 4 (c): *Leader directive behaviour as perceived by followers is negatively related to subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction*

These immediate subordinates are expected to be relatively confident, perceive themselves as having the ability to contribute to organizational objectives, be involved in their work and prefer a high level of autonomy in performing their functions (De Hoogh e al, 2005).

3.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a framework and model for this study. First, it has given the summary and conclusions of the literature review, then explained the research design which is the “glue” that holds research together. This study investigates expatriate managers’ adjustment in the context of culture and leadership in two societal cultures by utilizing the work of the GLOBE study in its theoretical formulation. Its framework includes expatriate managers and their immediate subordinates in international NGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia. These expatriate managers exhibit leader behaviours and have leader motives that not only affect their adjustment but also affect the psychological states of their subordinates, namely, organizational commitment, motivation and job satisfaction. It utilizes the implicit leadership theory (ILT), Value-Belief theory, motivation theory and met expectations theory to explain expatriate adjustment, leader motives and behaviour. In addition, it considers personality traits as a factor in expatriate adjustment, their behaviours and subordinate reactions. Hypotheses are formulated to cover societal culture, expatriate managers’ adjustment, expatriate leader motives and behaviours and their impact on subordinate reactions. Four main hypotheses were formulated with 17 sub-hypotheses.

In general, because of the diversity and pluralism of organizations, expatriate managers must be able to make sense of and use multiple perspectives and learn to bring their knowledge to bear on a wide range of decisions everyday. The best theories are those which have found or invented to match one’s own experience of the organization. Chapter four covers the methodology used to examine the proposed hypothesis and achieve objectives.

Chapter Four

Methodology

This chapter covers the methodology and focuses on description of data, sample frame, describes the program of data collection emphasizing the method of data collection and proceeds to give operational definition of concepts. An explanation of the questionnaire and interview design, information sought, type of question and method of administration, content of individual questions and the form of response is given. The chapter discusses questionnaire responses and problems connected with them. It then reports the details of the investigation by explaining the process of gathering data, the difficulties encountered. The second part presents initial analysis of the data and results. Finally, the chapter summarizes what has been reported.

Part 1: Methods and Process of Investigation

Introduction

The previous chapter suggested the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches in this study. This methodology chapter focuses on description of data, data collection and questionnaire and interview designs. Each of these major components is further divided into sub-components enabling the designing of a method of study. The first part of this chapter reports the details of the investigation and the difficulties experienced, while the second deals with initial analysis of data, preliminary results and a brief description of how the results will be organized and presented. We commence with the various approaches to measuring culture, leadership and adjustment, then described the data.

4.1 Various Approaches to Measuring Culture, Leadership and Adjustment

Review of literature revealed various approaches used in the study of culture, leadership and adjustment. In this section we mention why we chose the approach we used especially the instruments. As regards adjustment, the methods vary from evaluation of cross cultural training programmes (Mendanhall, et al, 2004), effectiveness (Black and Mendanhall, 1990); to discursive composition of narrative assignments – narrative analysis (Potter and Wetherell (1987). Depending on the stage of adjustment, discourse analysis was used as a guide. Peltonen (1998) used narrative construction of experience and career cycle e.g. a) career and language in expatriate experience, and b) expatriate careers as meaningful stories. In interviews conducted in this study we considered expatriate managers' career and experience as factors contributing to successful or unsuccessful adjustment. Some researchers have used factor analysis and varimax rotation, hierarchical regression analysis in the study of expatriate adjustment (Black, 1988; Black and Stephen, 1989; Selmer, 1998, 2002). They considered different aspects of adjustment; general, interaction and work adjustment. We used Black's (1988) scales because they covered these facets of adjustment and the questions are not complicated or confusing. In addition, the validity and reliability of the scales had been proven. Nevertheless, we used factor analysis, multiple regressions with adjustment as the dependent variable. Furthermore, interview questions formulated from literature aided us in understanding the context and process expatriate managers in Kenya and Ethiopia go through.

Another variable in this study is multicultural personality traits. These traits may affect both adjustment and subordinate reaction to the manager's behaviour (particular behaviours due to personality). These had been validated by Van Der Zee (2003) in the context of personnel selection. Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000; 2002) in their study of personality in dealing with threat and reaction to intercultural situations they used multivariate analysis. Our interest was in multicultural personality traits that are effective in intercultural setting. It seemed appropriate to use the multicultural personality questionnaire to obtain personality traits of expatriate managers. In the interviews, expatriate managers were asked to explain their personality traits that contributed to successful adjustment and those that did not.

Thirdly, we considered House et al.' (2002) study on the effects of motives and behaviour of CEOs on the psychological states of immediate subordinates and their reports on top management effectiveness. Their tools of analysis were questionnaires and interviews. They used a multiple correspondence factor analysis (using SPSS), LISREL confirmatory factor analysis to test whether the items in each coherent cluster measured one particular scale. Our interest in this study was the motives and behaviour of expatriate managers and reactions of their immediate subordinates. With permission from the authors, we were able to adapt the scales to our study and obtain data on expatriate managers' motives and behaviour and on immediate subordinates' reactions.

Fourthly, culture and leadership in the context of expatriate managers' cross cultural training and adjustment. Hofstede (1980) had analyzed data from 1116 questionnaires leading to four cultural dimensions. Other researchers like Kluckhohn and Strodtbecks (1991) developed scales to measure culture (e.g. future and humane orientations) and McClelland's performance orientation. Most recently, the GLOBE Study on culture, leadership and organizations aimed at examining the interrelations between societal culture, organizational culture and organizational leadership. The theory is that societal cultural values and practices affect what leaders do (House et al, 2004). We decided to use the instruments of measurement used by GLOBE measure culture and leadership behaviours. The next sub-section gives the rationale for using GLOBE measurements and findings.

4.1.1 Rationale for Using GLOBE Measurements and Findings

The critique of the GLOBE study in the literature chapter has enabled us to focus on the reasons why we chose it to be one of the anchors of our study. Firstly, the GLOBE

researchers developed new measures and collected original data for independent variables rather than relying on measures developed at other times in other places from other samples (House et al. 2004. p. 91-101). Since the measures were completed by different respondents, they were able to eliminate the problem of common source bias. In order to accurately and sensitively record the nuances of local meanings, all instruments were developed in consultation with members of each target culture, and instrument translation was done with enormous care (Grove, 2005. p.2). Specific attention also was paid to the effect of "response bias" on data-gathering and –analysis. According to Hanges and Dickson (Ch. 8) the scales and tests of their validity exceed normal empirical research standards. In addition, GLOBE findings suggest that middle-level managers are also an appropriate group for studying cultural constructs. The responses of the middle level managers appear to be both reliable (high within –culture response consistency, and high between culture response variation) and valid (strong predictive relationships with convergent constructs, and weak secondary relationship with divergent constructs) (House et al., 2004. p. 725). We therefore, used these scales for measuring societal culture and leader behaviours on middle managers in Kenya and Ethiopia. The responses were reliable and valid as is explained later in the chapter.

Secondly, the country scores on the nine independent variables were found to be useful for the adjustment and effective interaction of individuals who work with others from the countries studied in GLOBE (ibid., p. 726) and in this study of Kenya and Ethiopia. In addition, knowledge of the culturally endorsed implicit theories of leadership in each culture, and the reported most and least effective leader attributes and behaviours will be useful to those working with members of the cultures studied. More specifically, this information will be useful to expatriates, managers of diverse cultural and ethnic groups both domestic and abroad.

Thirdly, activities such as selecting, counselling and training expatriate managers will be facilitated by results of the GLOBE Project and of this study. These activities are central to HRM especially when parent organizations have to select suitable managers for foreign assignments to Kenya and Ethiopia. Potential managers can benefit from information regarding the kinds of behaviours that are acceptable and effective, unacceptable and ineffective in the cultures studied. Although GLOBE is an excellent measurement tool for cross cultural differences in culture and leadership (Grove, 2005); it is on an abstract level, thus, further refinement and qualitative culture specific information needs to be taken into consideration when we want to derive conclusions and recommendations for INGO in

expatriate managers in Kenya and Ethiopia. For this reason, culture specific information from literature on relevant issues to management and leadership in Africa and especially Kenya and Ethiopia has been included as a contribution to knowledge for expatriate managers to Kenya and Ethiopia.

The GLOBE findings are good for deriving general statements (e.g. cultural differences matter less than personality traits); what matters is the leaders' motivation, behaviour and personality. So, cultural background is a less important factor for selection of NGO personnel than for example, low flexibility. This kind of recommendations can be derived on the basis of GLOBE. What GLOBE cannot do is to give a sufficiently rich description of the cultural environment in Ethiopia and Kenya. What it can do is to find out whether Ethiopia and Kenya are culturally similar or rather different. Cultural practices are different while cultural values are similar because they aspire for the same things in their societies. What we need from GLOBE for this study are the measurement scales for reasons already mentioned and findings of the societal and leadership dimensions of the expatriate managers.

Fourthly, the second GLOBE volume (Chhokar et al, 2007) provides the basis for developing a comprehensive understanding of the cultural practices, values, and behaviours that are associated with effective leadership in a variety of societies from all major regions of the world. This should be of interest not only to expatriate managers who want to develop their awareness of the critical aspects of effective leadership in different cultures, but also to everyone who is interested in developing a better understanding of the different cultural backgrounds that shape the way other people feel, think, and act at work and in other contexts (ibid., p. 1025). Some of the culture specific information of expatriate countries will provide them with an understanding of their own culture in comparison to Kenyan and Ethiopian cultures.

In general, through their findings, GLOBE researchers show that it is appropriate to use the survey data for measuring cultural-level practices, values, implicit leadership. These findings indicate that survey data yield reliable and valid estimates of cultural-level constructs, provided the survey is based on a sound research design and a rigorous measurement instrument (House et al, 2004: Ch. 8). Practically, the reader will be able to develop an understanding of the role of cultural influences on the reported effectiveness of leader behaviours and organizational practices. Furthermore, leader behaviours that are culturally offensive are identified.

Finally, the GLOBE project uses the concept of implicit leadership Theory (ILT) as a critical explanatory mechanism by which culture influences leadership processes. In our case, culture influences expatriate managers' behaviour. Leadership prototypes within ILT are profiles of presumed effective or preferred leader attributes or behaviours (Lord and Maher, 1991). Using prototypes in this manner is a natural development of the social information developing literature (Croker, Fiske and Taylor, 1984; Rosch, 1975). Models developed from this literature can illustrate how cultures shape the basic ways people collect, store, organize and process information about leaders. Shaw (1990) argues that much of the cross national literature indicating differences in managerial beliefs, values and styles can be interpreted as showing culturally influenced differences in leader prototypes. Prototypes may include leader behaviours, values, attitudes and personality traits.

4.1.2 Methodological Framework

"Cross cultural research is tricky and difficult" (Triandis, 2004, p xv) in part because measuring concepts such as culture and leadership is a complex demanding process. GLOBE researchers deployed "diverse methodologies", both quantitative and qualitative, to enhance the robustness and richness of the findings. The instruments developed by GLOBE researchers are based on the existing literature but are cross cultural in the sense that the country co-investigators (CCIs) are either natives of their cultures or are very knowledgeable about them (House et al., 2004. pp. 91 -101). They participated in the process of instrument design from the beginning (ibid. p. 724). The scales were designed to independently measure cultural practices and values using a sound theoretical basis; and items were developed and validated against exacting standards (ibid, 725). They developed new methods for identifying and controlling for response bias⁴⁸ and tested the constructs validity of scales⁴⁹.

Previous cross-cultural scholars have used samples such as first line supervisors in marketing and service occupations (Hofstede, 1980), school students and teachers (Schwartz, 1999) and the general population (Inglehart, Basanez and Moreno, 1998) for developing cultural-level

⁴⁸ Triandis (1995) has noted that the various cultures have conflicting response patterns when responding to questionnaires. The presence of these different responses patterns can potentially compromise cross-cultural comparisons. Thus several different statistical techniques have been developed to eliminate the contamination.

⁴⁹ Response bias occurs when a group of respondents tends to use a generally positive, or generally negative, response set; or when group members tend to use only end-points (e.g., 1, 2, 6, 7) or only mid-points (e.g., 3, 4, 5) of a scale. Existing research has shown that there are societal-wide tendencies in individuals' responses to scaled questionnaire items. The researchers "went to extraordinary lengths" to avoid, detect, and statistically correct for, response bias [House et al., 2004. pp. 680-1].

constructs. GLOBE findings suggest that middle-level managers are also an appropriate group for studying cultural constructs. The responses of the middle level managers appear to be both reliable (high within –culture response consistency, and high between culture response variation) and valid (strong predictive relationships with convergent constructs, and weak secondary relationship with divergent constructs) (House et al., p. 725).

According to Hanges and Dickson (2004: Ch. 8)⁵⁰, it is likely that high quality scale measures may reduce the number of respondents needed to obtain accurate estimates of the cultural-level constructs. They further show that it is appropriate to generalize about the national-level cultural constructs on the basis of a single sample of individuals, even in highly diverse nations where multiple substructures co-exist e.g. South Africa. In societies in which the sub-cultures were studied, their results indicated predictable patterns of societal-cultural constructs (Gupta and Hanges, 2004: Ch. 10). In South Africa, the Black sample belonged to the Sub-Saharan Africa cluster, whereas the White sample belonged to the Anglo Cluster.

The GLOBE findings affirm the significance of sampling and studying sub-cultures. At the same time, their findings also suggest that by sampling from a dominant sub-group within each society one may indeed be able to predict several national-level behaviours (Ch. 9. by Gupta, Sully de Luque and House). Through their findings, they show that it is appropriate to use the survey data for measuring cultural-level practices, values, and implicit leadership. These findings indicate that survey data yield reliable and valid estimates of cultural-level constructs, provided the survey is based on a sound research design and a rigorous measurement instrument.

4.2 Description of Data

This study has used both primary and secondary data. The data on expatriate's adjustment, personality and subordinates' rating of expatriates was collected at a specific period. Since in social science research changes in attitudes and behaviour are studied over time, the study of how expatriates adjust and impact of their motives, personality and behaviour on subordinates would benefit from a longitudinal study (where both expatriates and subordinates would be studied repeatedly over a specified period of time, say, 5 years). But due to time constraint, cross sectional data is used where different expatriates were interviewed, and responded to the same questionnaire, at a specified period of time. In addition to primary data, information on

⁵⁰ The chapters refer to chapters in House et al, 2004

indigenous and modern culture and NGO environment of Kenya and Ethiopia were utilized. The GLOBE Study findings were also incorporated in knowledge information for expatriate managers.

Data was collected from middle managers of financial institutions in Kenya and Ethiopia, expatriate managers of INGOs and their subordinates. This was administered in the form of questionnaires and interviews and the data collected was in two parts: societal data and expatriate data. Societal data contained both societal culture and leader attributes and behaviour, where as, expatriate data contained expatriate personality, adjustment, behaviour and subordinate reactions to expatriate behaviour. The expatriate data was collected from international non-governmental organizations. What follows in the next section is the sample frame.

4.2.1 Sample Frame

4.2.1.1 The Population: In this study the population consists of (a) all middle managers of financial institutions in Kenya and Ethiopia and (b) all expatriate managers and their immediate subordinates working in international non-governmental organizations in the two counties. This target population provides us with a solid foundation and first step upon which to build external and population validity of this study (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996).

4.2.1.2 The Sample: The sample was drawn from those organizations that accepted to participate in the study. International non government organizations and firms from different countries situated in Kenya and Ethiopia were invited to participate and depending on their response and a follow up, the following participated:

- a) 160 middle managers from the financial sector especially banks and insurance companies in Kenya and Ethiopia in order to obtain societal culture and leadership behaviours.
- b) 32 INGO expatriate managers from 15 countries working in Kenya and Ethiopia participated but data from 28 could be used.
- c) 125 immediate subordinates agreed to respond to questions about their managers' behaviour and reactions to those behaviours. Immediate subordinates who answer directly to the expatriate manager could be at least two and at most nine depending on the size of the organization. Six was the preferred number i.e. two from each of the three versions of questionnaires.

The next sub-section describes the constructs and measures used in questionnaires.

4.2.2 Operational Definition of Concepts

4.2.2.1 Societal Culture and Leader Attributes and Behaviour

Culture constructs definitions and sample questionnaire items (House et al, 2002) are presented in Table 4.1. The main aim was to determine societal culture and leader attributes of the host countries and compare it with that of various expatriates. The culture constructs include: Power distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Humane Orientation, Collectivism I, Collectivism II, Assertiveness, Gender Egalitarianism, Future Orientation and Performance Orientation (House et al, 2004:30). Regarding measures, a 78 items questionnaire developed by GLOBE to measure the nine constructs and 56 items to measure leadership dimensions with a Likert type scale was used. Respondents were asked to indicate on a scale of 1 to 7 (e.g. strongly agree to strongly disagree) depending on the construct. The items measured the practices and values in each society and leader behaviour (shown in Table 4.2a Leadership Dimensions). Questionnaire sections can be found in the appendix C. The variables include nine cultural dimensions and six leadership dimensions.

The six global leader behaviours and attributes (Table 4.2 a) when quantified are referred to as leadership dimensions (House et al, 2004:46-48). The preferred leader behaviours in the host countries can be used by both the expatriate manager and subordinate in the adjustment process. This helped us identify expatriate from nations that have similar preferences and whether or not this enhances adjustment.

4.2.2.2 Expatriate Manager Leader Motives and Behaviour

The aim of this to determine through detailed interviews the major concerns, motives and experience of expatriate managers as regards adjustment, their leadership experience and views on management. How was information gathered on motives and behaviour?

- a) **Motives:** Motive relevant information on expatriate managers was gathered through interviews of 45 to 120 minutes with semi-structured interviews (Interview questions are presented in Appendix 1E). The questions were meant to elicit the manager's dominant concerns, beliefs, values, opinions and philosophy of management. Interviews were coded for motive imagery (power, affiliation and achievement) using the Winter and Healy (1982) motive scoring system as well as expressions of

responsibility using the Winter (1992) responsibility coding system. These were defined in chapter 3.

Table 4.1: Culture Construct Definitions and Sample Questionnaire Items

Culture Construct Definitions	Specific Questionnaire Item
Power distance: The degree to which the members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally	Followers are (should be) expected to obey their leaders without question.
Uncertainty avoidance: The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies on social norms, rules and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events.	Most people lead (Should lead) highly structured lives with few unexpected events
Humane Orientation: The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to others	People are generally (should be generally) very tolerant of mistakes.
Collectivism I: The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.	Leaders encourage (should encourage) group loyalty even if individual goals suffer
Collectivism II: The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in their organization or families.	Aging parents generally live (should live) at home with their children
Assertiveness: The degree to which individuals are assertive, dominant and demanding in their relationships with others	People are (should be) generally dominant
Gender egalitarianism: The degree to which a collective minimizes gender inequality.	Boys are encouraged (should be encouraged) more than girls to attain a higher education. (Scored inversely)
Future Orientation: The extent to which a collective encourages future-orientated behaviours such as delaying gratification, planning and investing in the future.	More people live (should live) for the present than for the future. (Scored inversely)
Performance Orientation: The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.	Students are encouraged (should be encouraged) to strive for continuously improved performance.

(Adapted from: House et al, 2004:30, GLOBE Project, Part I)

- b) Leader Behaviour:** A questionnaire was administered to the immediate subordinates of the expatriate managers. Its components included eleven leader behaviour subscales and three subscales designed to measure the relationship between managers and their subordinates (CMS).

Table 4.2a: Leadership Dimensions:

Leader Behaviour and Attributes	Definition of Leadership Dimension
Charismatic/Value Based Leadership:	This dimension reflects ability to inspire, to motivate, and to expect high performance outcomes from others based on firmly held core values. It includes six subscales: visionary, inspirational, self-sacrifice, integrity, decisive and performance oriented.
Participative Leadership	It reflects the degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions. This dimension includes two subscales: non-participative and autocratic (both reverse score)
Team-Oriented Leadership	This leadership dimension emphasizes effective team building and implementation of the common purpose or goal among team members. It includes five subscales: collaborative team orientation, team integrator diplomatic, malevolent (reverse scored) and administrative competent
Autonomous Leadership	This newly defined dimension refers to independent and individualistic leadership attributes. It is measured by a single subscale: autonomous leadership consisting of individualistic, independence, autonomous and unique attributes.
Humane-Oriented Leadership	This dimension reflects supportive and considerate leadership but also includes compassion and generosity. It includes two subscales: modesty and humane orientation
Self-Protective Leadership	From a Western perspective, this newly defined leadership behaviour focuses on ensuring that safety and security of the individual and group through status enhancement and face saving. It includes five subscales: self centred, status conscious, conflict inducer, face saver and procedural

(Formulated from: *House et al, 2004, p. 14-15 and 674-75; GLOBE Project, Part I*)

Table 4.2b defines the questionnaire items of leader behaviours as rated by subordinates and subordinate reactions to these behaviours. Subordinates were asked to indicate on a scale from 1 to 7 (1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree) the degree to which they agree on 96 items, i.e. leader behaviour and subordinates' reaction. The importance of organizational outcome to the subordinate also had a scale of 1 to 7 (1 = no importance to 7 = most importance).

4.2.2.3. Subordinates' Reactions

The aim was to determine whether or not the behaviours of expatriate managers have an impact on subordinates CMS. The subordinates completed three questionnaire subscales by which they described their relationship with their expatriate managers. These subscales describe the relationship between the respondents and their managers in terms of:

Table 4.2b: Leader Behaviour and Subordinate Reactions

Dimensions	Questionnaire Items
1. Charismatic Leadership	Vision, performance, Expectations and Improvement emphasis, Follower Confidence and Challenge, Intellectual Stimulation, Role Modeling, Integrity and Self Confidence
2. Support-Reward	Leader Consideration and Contingent Reward (recognition and approval)
3. Direction	
4. Fairness in Evaluation	
5. Commitment, Motivation and Satisfaction	Motive Arousal, Commitment, Satisfaction, Motivation

(Formulated from: House et al, 2002; Article on Charismatic Leadership an CEOs)

- the motivational effect of the manager on subordinates
- the subordinate's satisfaction with the manager and their commitment to the vision of the manager and organization.

These subscales were combined to form the latent construct labelled CMS (House et al, 2002). The variables are the four leader behaviours.

4.2.2.4. Expatriate Manager Adjustment

There are a number of variables that have been found to predict adjustment. Here the focus is on multicultural personality traits, and how expatriates have adjusted to work roles, interacting with host nationals and life in general. Multicultural personality traits; cultural empathy, social initiative, open mindedness, emotional stability and flexibility were measured using the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ)⁵¹.

The MPQ was used as an indicator of personality (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000, 2001). The intercultural traits were measured with the 91 – items multicultural personality questionnaire. Participants gave their answers on a five-point scale, ranging from not at all applicable to totally applicable. Each of the traits was measured by items that describe concrete behaviours or tendencies, which were considered to be indicative of the particular dimension.

⁵¹ These are defined in Chapter 3: p. 105

To measure adjustment, we used the method where the expatriate's assessment of how comfortable or adjusted he or she feels. According to Black (1988:283) for expatriate managers, it is hypothesized that there are three facets of adjustment. It seems, expatriate managers adjust to a) work roles, b) interacting with host nationals (Kenya and Ethiopian subordinates in this study), and c) the general culture and everyday life. An eleven item scale was adapted from Black (1988) to measure the three facets of adjustment. The six items measuring adjustment to everyday life were based on the scales developed by Thorbion (1982). To measure work adjustment, respondents were asked to indicate the degree of adjustment they feel with their job and responsibilities, with interacting with Kenyan or Ethiopian peers, subordinates. To measure adjustment to interacting with Kenyans or Ethiopians in general, respondents were asked to indicate their degree of adjustment to working with Kenyans or Ethiopians outside their organization and to interacting with Kenyans or Ethiopians in general, everyday situations. Six more items were added to the questionnaire on; cultural training, nationality, gender, marital status, age and length of time in the organization. The next section deals with the questionnaire and interview designs.

4.3 Questionnaire design

4.3.1 Information Sought

The first part of the study was concerned with differentiating attributes of societal and organizational cultures. This was addressed by questionnaire items developed by GLOBE on the basis of prior literature (House et al, 2004:11). Responses to these questions by middle managers were analyzed resulting in the identification of nine major attributes of culture and six global leader behaviours of culturally endorsed implicit theories of leadership (defined earlier in this chapter). The purpose of the questionnaire items was to elicit reports of current societal and organizational practices and respondent's values with respect to these practices.

The second part was concerned with expatriate managers' adjustment (to work, interaction and general everyday life), their behaviour as they adjust, and the impact of that behaviour on their immediate subordinates. This concern was addressed first by interviewing expatriate managers and second by two questionnaires. The first questionnaire was responded to by

expatriate managers soon after the interview while the second by their immediate subordinates.

4.3.2 Type of Question and Method of Administration

The items used in this study were designed to obtain data about both societal and organizational cultural variables. Respondents rated the items on a 7 –point Likert-type scale. For some scales, the response indicators ranged from 1, indicating high agreement, to 7, indicating high disagreement. For other scales, the verbal anchors in the 7 –point scale reflected the end points on a continuum (e.g., 1 = assertive, 7 = non-assertive).

Leader behaviour questionnaire items are based on a review of the leadership literature as well as findings relevant to leadership resulting from focus groups, interviews, and analysis of media (House et al, 2004:210).. These leader attributes and behaviour questionnaire included 112 leader attributes and behaviour items. For the leader behaviour, factor analysis yielded 21 leadership subscales. A second order factor analysis yielded four factors. Two of the factors were subdivided into two subscales each, thus yielding six global leader behaviour dimensions.⁵²

4.3.3 Content of Individual Questions

4.3.3.1 Societal Culture Questionnaire

All culture scales were 7 –point scales. The items were written as “quartets” having isomorphic structures across the two levels of analysis (societal and Organizational) across the two culture manifestations (As Is and Should be) (House et al, 2004. p.21). Table 4.3 contains an example of a quartet of parallel culture items showing essentially the same question in four forms: organizational and society practices (questions with *As Is* response format) and organizational and society values (questions with *Should Be* response format). Responses to *As Is* questions reveal the perceptions of middle managers concerning current practices in their societies and their organizations. Responses to *Should Be* questions reveal managers’ values with respect to what they believe should be the practices in their societies or organizations.

⁵² The 21 leadership subscales and the six global leader behaviour dimensions are presented by Hanges and Dickson in chapter 8 of House et al, 2004, while Dorfman, Hanges and Brodbeck describe the relationship of the cultural and leadership dimensions in chapter 21.

Table 4.3: Example of Culture item from Quartets Across Organizational and Societal Levels and the two Cultural Manifestations (*Adapted from: House et al, 2004:125*)

Organizational Cultural practices (As Is)						
Individual Interests	The pay and bonus system in this organization is designed to maximize:					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Organizational Cultural values (Should Be)						
Individual Interests	In this organization, the pay and bonus system should be designed to maximize:					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Societal Cultural Practices (As Is)						
Individual Interests	The economic system in this society is designed to maximize:					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Societal Cultural Practices (Should Be)						
Individual Interests	I believe that the economic system in this society should be designed to maximize:					
	1	2	3	4	5	6

There were several different types of questions in the societal culture questionnaire. Sections 1 and 3 have questions with two different formats. An example⁵³ of the first type of question is shown below.

- A. In this country, the weather is generally:
- | | | | | | | |
|---------------|---|---|---------------------|---|---|-----------------|
| very pleasant | | | moderately pleasant | | | very unpleasant |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

For a question like this, the respondent would circle the number from 1 to 7 that is closest to his/her perceptions about his/her country. The second type of question asks how much the respondent agrees or disagrees with a particular statement. An example of this kind of question is given below.

- B. The weather in this country is very pleasant
- | | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|---|----------------------------|---|---|-------------------|
| Strongly Agree | | | Neither agree nor disagree | | | Strongly disagree |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

For a question like this, the respondent would circle the number from 1 to 7 that is closest to his/her level of agreement with the statement.

⁵³ This is taken directly from the questionnaire (refer to the appendix section)

Sections 2 and 4 have a different type of question. For these sections the respondent is given a list of behaviours and characteristics that a leader might display. Table 4.4 presents the example of the leader behaviour questionnaire items. Leader attributes were rated 1 through 7 with 1 indicating “This behaviour or characteristic greatly inhibits a person from being an outstanding leader” to a high of 7 indicating “This behaviour or characteristic contributes greatly to a person being an outstanding leader”.

Table 4.4: Sample items and Response Alternatives from the Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory (CLT) Questionnaire (*Adapted from: House et al, 2004:22*)

Definition of Leadership	Ability to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute to success of their organization
Sample CLT Items	<i>Sensitive:</i> Aware of slight changes in moods of others <i>Motivator:</i> Mobilizes, activates followers <i>Evasive</i> Refrains from making negative comments to maintain good relationships and save face <i>Diplomatic:</i> Skilled at interpersonal relations, tactful. <i>Self-interested:</i> Pursues own best interests
Response Alternatives	Inhibits or contributes to outstanding leadership <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Greatly inhibits 2. Somewhat inhibits 3. slightly inhibits 4. has no impact 5. contributes slightly 6. contributes somewhat 7. contributes greatly

4.3.3.2 Expatriate Manager Questionnaire

Multicultural Personality Questionnaire

The intercultural traits were measured with the 91 – item multicultural personality questionnaire. Expatriate managers gave their answers on a five-point scale, ranging from not at all applicable to totally applicable. Each of the traits was measured by items that describe concrete behaviours or tendencies, which were considered to be indicative of the particular dimension. For example, the respondent was asked to what extent the following statements apply to them: a) understands other people’s feelings, b) avoids surprises. The respondent indicated on a five-point Likert scale of 1 to 5 the extent to which the statement is applicable 1 indicating “totally not applicable” to a high of 5 indicating “completely applicable”.

Expatriate Adjustment

Regarding section B of the expatriate questionnaire, the respondents indicated on a five-point Likert scale of 1 to 5 the degree of adjustment on the three facets. 1 indicating “not adjusted” to a high of 5 indicating “very well adjusted”. For example, how adjusted are you to: a) your job and responsibilities, b) generally living in Kenya c) interacting with Kenyans in general?

4.3.3.3 Subordinates' Questionnaire

Subordinates completed three questionnaire subscales by which they describe their relationship with their expatriate managers. They were asked to indicate on a scale from 1 to 7 (1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree) the degree to which they agree on 96 items, i.e. leader behaviour and subordinates' reaction. Below are examples of such statements found in the questionnaire:

a) The expatriate manager leader behaviour

1. Strives for excellence in performance of self and subordinates
2. Is able to anticipate future needs
3. Has ability to manage complex office work and administration systems.

b) Your Reaction (Subordinate's)

1. I am optimistic about the future of the organization
2. My effort is above and beyond that which is required

In general, this section has presented the content of individual questions for each questionnaire. The next section explains the form of expected responses.

4.3.4 The Form of Response

Responses to *As Is* questions reveal the perceptions of middle managers concerning current practices in their societies. Responses to *Should Be* questions reveal manager's values with respect to what they believe should be practices in their societies or organizations. Responses to the personality questions describe concrete behaviours or tendencies; such as cultural empathy and flexibility. As for adjustment, the responses show the individual's assessment of how comfortable or adjusted he or she feels.

Subordinate responses to the subordinate questionnaire provided descriptions of the behaviour of the expatriate manager. Their responses also indicated their cognitive and emotional reactions with respect to commitment to the expatriates' vision, the motivational effect of the expatriate manager and subordinates' satisfaction with their working relationships with the expatriate leader.

Having explained the questionnaire design, we now proceed with the interview design by explaining the information sought and the interview questions.

4.4 Interview Design

4.4.1 Information Sought

Part of the data collection consisted of interviews with expatriate managers. The first section dealt with management/leadership. The aim was to gather relevant information through semi-structured interviews intended to elicit the expatriates' dominant concerns, beliefs, values, opinions and philosophy of management. The second section on adjustment was intended to elicit the expatriate managers' expectations, fears, knowledge of host country, successes and difficulties, cultural training, and interaction with subordinates. The questions are derived from literature on expatriate and cross cultural adjustment that examines these items as indicated in the interview items below.

4.4.2 Interview Questions

Part one of the interview deals with expatriate motives and experience⁵⁴. Expatriate manager's dominant concerns, beliefs, values, opinions and philosophy of management are elicited from the questions. Examples of questions are as follows: *Would you (Manager) briefly, taking about five to eight minutes, describe your career to date, beginning with your education and then when you first entered a management position? What were the major deficiencies in the organization, or the major problems or barriers facing you, in accomplishing what you hoped to accomplish? Please describe the most important organizational changes that you plan to implement in the near future.* These among other questions were to be responded to in detail. Some of the interview themes include: career/education, strength of organization, deficiencies in organization, expatriate strengths as a manager, expatriates weaknesses as manager, organizational changes to implement, philosophy of management.

Part two of the interview deals with expatriate adjustment⁵⁵. Adjustment refers to how the manager has been able to adjust to: Job (work roles), interacting with host nationals (esp. Subordinates), and the general culture and everyday life. Some of the questions are as follows: *What were your expectations when you were assigned to this country as a manager? (Behind peoples expectations are attitudes and perceptions of what they feel and think) What were your major fears? Why do you think you had these fears? How did you manage to overcome them? (Fear: may be due to anxiety, uncertainty about the future, lack of*

⁵⁴ Questionnaire adapted from: House et al, 2002: Charismatic Theory of Leadership: An Empirical Test of CEOs. The ten questions are presented in Appendix I (E): Expatriate Managers Interview Guide

⁵⁵ Interview questions were designed by researcher anchored by literature review on expatriate adjustment. Complete question guide is presented in Appendix I (E)

experience, attitudes, perceptions, on what is to be encountered. etc) What were some of the difficulties you encountered in your adjustment? These and other questions provide information from respondents on expatriate adjustment. The key topics in the questions are highlighted as follows: Expectations, fear, reasons for accepting assignment, knowledge of host country, knowledge and time period, successes, difficulties, cross cultural training, spouse, nationality and age, interaction with subordinates, and advice for new arrivals.

This section has identified the formulated interview questions which took 45 to 120 minutes from each expatriate to respond. Having explained the questions in both quantitative and qualitative approaches, what follows are the details for data collection both from questionnaires and interviews.

4.5 Programme Description: Data Collection

4.5.1. Approaches to Data Collection

The first approach is the interview approach conducted face to face and one to one, speaking directly with one expatriate manager at a time. This was both time consuming and costly since expatriates managers were found in different parts of the country. To save time, only those managers living in Nairobi and Addis Ababa were interviewed. The head offices of most of the INGOs in Kenya and Ethiopia are found in these two cities.

The second approach used was the self –completion questionnaires where middle managers, expatriate managers and their immediate subordinates completed questionnaires. Although the intention was to send questionnaires through post, thus permitting large samples to be reached with relatively little extra effort, we were advised against it because of problems with the postal system. Therefore, questionnaires were sent in person to each organization and the chief executive distributed their questionnaire soon after the interview and immediate subordinates were asked to respond to questionnaires within two weeks. The problems encountered in the collection of data will be explained later in the chapter, we now examine sources of data collection.

4.5.2 Sources of Data Collection

Table 4.5 gives a summary table of sources of data collection and the items in the questionnaires. Expatriate managers filled a questionnaire and were interviewed while

subordinates and middle managers responded to questionnaires on leader behaviour and societal culture respectively. The items in the questionnaire are in brackets and the motives

Table 4.5 Sources of Data Collection

Sources	Questionnaires	Interviews	Documents/Texts
1. a) Expatriate (N = 28)	Adjustment (11 items) Personality (91 items) Cross Cultural Training (1 item) Demographics (Age, Nationality, Status, etc)	Management (10 questions) Adjustment (12 Questions) Motives (scored for 4 motives)	Expatriate experiences (VSO, APSO, American Volunteer Achieves of returned expatriates)
b) Subordinates (N = 125)	Expatriate Leader Behaviour (Rated by Subordinates) – (86 items) Subordinate Reaction (16 items)		Subordinate Reactions (Documented)
2. Middle Managers In Kenya and Ethiopia N=160)	Societal Cultures (Cultural Dimensions) – (78 items) Leader Behaviour (CLT Dimensions) – (56 items)		

4.5.3 Actual Data Collection

Given the research questions for this study, the first choice of investigation was the administration of questionnaires. This was chosen to examine societal culture and leader attributes and behaviour. It was also chosen for expatriate manager's personality and adjustment and subordinate's rating of expatriate manager's behaviour and their own reactions to this behaviour. The second choice was interviewing expatriate managers about their adjustment and their experience and views as managers in a foreign country. This research could have been conducted in any part of Africa, but Kenya and Ethiopia were chosen because they are neighbouring countries and similar INGOs offer their services to both countries. In addition, although the cultures of these countries are quite different, cross cultural literature includes them in the same regional clusters (Hofstede, 1991; House et al, 2004). Data collected confirms this and gives more insight, while qualitative data from expatriate managers enriches the quantitative data from the questionnaire completed by them.

A summary of data collected from middle managers, expatriate managers and their immediate subordinates is presented in the next section.

4.5.3.1 Societal Culture

Although the intention of the researcher was to conduct research among middle managers of financial institutions, manufacturing companies and telecommunications, it was found that reliable data could be found among financial institutions. Both CEOs of these companies and university researchers who have experience in research in Kenya and Ethiopia warned us of poor responses that could be reluctantly given. Because of the nature and seriousness of financial institutions, it was decided that they would be suitable to participate in the study. The societal culture questionnaire was given to the general manager who had it distributed to middle managers and the researcher was asked to pick them after two to three weeks.

Out of more than 250 questionnaires distributed to middle managers from the financial sector in Kenya and Ethiopia, 160 usable responses were received. In Ethiopia the rate of response was high because the researcher and assistants met the general managers, explained to them the importance of this study and the managers promised to distribute the questionnaires to their middle managers. The responses were received at the promised time. While in Kenya, most financial institutions did not want to participate because the government crackdown on corruption and it was not possible to meet the general managers even after several appointments. We decided to meet the Human Resource managers who distributed the questionnaires. It took months to get some of the questionnaires back although promises were made week after week. It was a very frustrating experience. The response rate was low. Below is a table of data collected for each country.

Table 4.6: Response Rate on Societal Culture Questionnaire

Country	Number of Organizations	Number of questionnaires Distributed	Returned	Response Rate (%)
Ethiopia	18	140	114	81.43
Kenya	8	110	46	41.8
Total	26	250	160	64

4.5.3.2 Expatriate Managers' Adjustment

More than fifty INGOs were invited to participate but only 32 responded and 28 participated fully. Some had both regional and country directors, while others provided their assistants or project and programme managers. Expatriate managers that responded were from the following countries: USA, UK, Germany, Italy, France, Ireland, Canada, Philippines, India, Colombia, Chile, Portugal, Switzerland, and Belgium. These countries have NGOs in both Kenya and Ethiopia. The detailed interview questions covered the expatriates' dominant concerns and various aspects of adjustment.

The procedure employed was to call the manager to schedule an appointment with a time slot of at least one hour. This was not easy since some of the managers kept changing their appointments and in the end five were not interviewed in Kenya. The main excuses were meetings, seminars and office work that could not wait especially semi-annual reports. Some simply asked the secretary to call us and cancel the interview altogether because of a more pressing engagement. For those who finally made it, an introduction was made as regards the study and issues of confidentiality were stressed. It was explained to the manager that immediate subordinates would respond to a questionnaire about them and approval was sought. Although one manager completed the interview in 40 minutes, others took more than one hour, up to two hours. The interviews were recorded on audiotapes, and later transcribed and coded for motive imagery and the responsibility disposition. At the end of the interview questionnaires for subordinates were distributed. These were to be completed within two weeks.

4.5.3.3 Immediate Subordinates

The confidentiality of the study was explained to them through writing and they were assured that only the researcher would use their responses. The target was to have at least two to four subordinates for every manager. The questionnaires had three versions but this study used only two versions because they deal directly with expatriate managers' behaviour and subordinate reaction. The response rate of the subordinates was relatively good. For the three versions, more than 100 subordinates responded.

The procedure was as follows: after the interview with the expatriate manager; they indicated how many immediate subordinates they had and the secretary was asked to distribute the

questionnaires to them. Some of the subordinates declined after noticing that the expatriate manager's behaviour was to be rated and their response to the impact of that behaviour was expected. The researcher had the responsibility of phoning the secretary to find out whether or not the subordinates had completed the questionnaire and returned it to her. For some it took weeks to complete and after several phone calls we were able to get them. For others, they were ready at the appointed date. A few subordinates mentioned to the researcher that they felt uncomfortable rating the behaviour of their manager. Because of the level of mistrust in some organizations, they felt that the manager might see the responses and that might jeopardize their jobs. The promise of confidentiality was not taken seriously by some and so they did not respond. Below is a summary of the response rate.

Table 4.7: Expatriate Managers and Subordinates Response Rate

Country	Expatriate Manager Questionnaire		Subordinate's Questionnaires		
	Number of Organizations	Interviews	Version A	Version B	Version C
Ethiopia	14	18	28	30	11
Kenya	7	10	20	25	11
Total	21	28	48	57	22
Response Rate	21 out of 50 = 42%	28 out of 50 = 56%	48 of 87 = 55%	57 of 87 = 66%	22 of 58 = 38%

The organizations covered work in relief, development, health, poverty, hunger, refugees AIDS, democratic change, education and communications. Five of the managers had worked in other organizations in these countries and supplied valuable information on their experiences in the two cultures during their interviews.

The collection of data involved the process of access, visiting the various organizations, discussing the research aims with the managers and convincing them to participate. Acceptance to participate did not mean that they were ready to complete the required questionnaires or if they consented to complete them on time. The next sections explain some of the difficulties encountered in the collection of data.

4.6 Difficulties Experienced in Data Collection

It is important to mention that research assistants were very helpful in assisting to distribute questionnaires and to call managers and subordinates to inquire whether they were completed. In Ethiopia the research assistant accompanied the researcher to every organization and could explain in Amharic what the research was all about. The follow up was done by the researcher. In Kenya, the research assistant helped in the follow up to get the completed questionnaires.

4.6.1 Getting Access to Organizations

Data collection began after revision on the qualifying report because of the need to refine aims, objectives, hypothesis, constructs and measures for the research project. Regarding access to organizations, six banks and three insurance institutions in Kenya and all 18 financial institutions in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, accepted to participate in the Societal Culture research while 21 international non-governmental organizations permitted their expatriate managers and subordinates to participate.

Although the GLOBE project questionnaires and some interview questions were adapted for data collection, there was need to spent time to continue working on the aims, hypothesis, constructs and measures and finally to construct statistical hypothesis for testing. Attached please find the final questionnaires and interview guide used for data collection (Appendix 1: E). As mentioned above, the sample size depended on access and availability of managers for interviews, in both Kenya and Ethiopia.

The aim of the research was to find the extent to which the expatriate manager had adjusted to the new culture, and depending on the length of time in the job, how this adjustment especially leader behaviour and motives had an impact on subordinates. This impact was expected to affect subordinates' motivation to work, commitment to organization, and satisfaction.

The first part of the research required a study of the national culture of the host country, in this case the national cultures of Kenya and Ethiopia. In Kenya, the financial sector and telecoms participated but data from the telecoms was not complete.. Many organizations in the manufacturing sector declined to participate, and therefore, we decided to exclude them from the sample. In Ethiopia, we were advised to concentrate on the financial sector and the results were encouraging. The response rate was given in the previous section. For the second

part, it was difficult to get expatriate managers in Kenya who had the time for an interview let alone answer a questionnaire. The political situation was unstable because the new government was committed to rooting out corruption and building a new Kenya. In Ethiopia, the political and economic system was stable although there was talk of famine because of lack of rain.

4.6.2. Problems with Access

For the organizations that turned down the offer to participate, there were a number of reasons for the refusal in Kenya. First, with the “Goldenberg Scandal” (an organization that used to import and export Gold) in which many banks including the central bank were implicated and other organizations too, many of these organizations were weary of researchers incase information could be used against them. Some of the organizations mentioned it bluntly and declined to participate in the research. The fight against corruption especially the dismissal of the Appeal and High Court Judges had caused panic and caution among the different sectors in Kenya.

Secondly, although a file had been prepared explaining the research and a letter written to the managers, we discovered that some of the top managers did not get the letter, the human resources manager decided whether the organization was to participate in the research. For the sake of protocol, it is the HR or public relations manager that was to introduce us to the general manager or discuss with him/her whether or not the organization could participate. For example, the Central Bank had to involve a number of departments in the decision to participate because filling in the “Societal Culture” questionnaire required a number of middle managers. After four months, they had not decided and did not know where the questionnaires were despite periodic reminders of the time factor. On the other hand, the immigration department had to form a panel to discuss whether or not they could offer us the information requested on expatriates in the country. The reason for this caution was that whatever information was released for research, there was the danger of the public misinterpreting the information given. The department would be held responsible by the government incase the information was misused. To make matters worse, a Korean national had been made a Kenyan citizen without the knowledge of the Korean government and embassy in Kenya and the Kenyan immigration department was under scrutiny. Given this complex environment, it was not easy to get information from the departments regarding expatriates, conditions of employment or work permits and how many had left the country without completing their contracts.

Some of the main problems in getting access to organizations in Kenya include;

1. Guards at the door who wanted to know whether or not we had an appointment, e.g. calling in advance. Although there was a phone right there, they were advised to tell visitors to make appointments. The guards were there for security purposes because of the bombings in Kenya in recent years.
2. Then there were secretaries and/or receptionists who were not helpful at times. They would simply say, "he or she (the manager) was not in, and asked us to come or call later. On calling, they would say he/she is in a meeting. At times they would mention that she/he is away for two or three weeks and would get back to us. Unfortunately, no one got back to us. In one instance, the secretary had kept questionnaires in her drawer and insisted that we had not given them to her, only to find them when she checked.
3. Some of the HR managers were not helpful. They had not read the letter of request for access to their organization after two weeks and gave excuses of being very busy and could not discuss the matter with the CEO or general manager.

Ethiopia was quite different from Kenya. We used a different tactic to get to the general managers of all the banks and financial institutions. Through friends working at these institutions, we were able to get names, phone numbers of the chief executives and were able to talk to them. The result was that they all accepted to participate and the response rate was more than 80%. The same tactic was used for expatriate managers and what had not been accomplished in Kenya for four months was accomplished in Ethiopia in six weeks.

4.6.3 Other Data Collection Difficulties

In Kenya, a number of responses were not usable for societal data because the questionnaires were only partly done. A number indicated that the questionnaire was very long and that it required at least an hour to complete. The frustrating part was that those who did not complete had promised to do it in two weeks but after six weeks nothing was done. The partially completed responses could not be used. Therefore, the lesson learnt from this experience for further research is to stick to a set period of time for completion of the questionnaires and once it is time, the rest would be regarded as not completed unless the response rate is very low.

The second lesson is that it is better to have connections and use those connections in getting access. This was used in Ethiopia and it turned out to be a great success. The INGO managers were willing to be interviewed but due to other commitments we were not able to interview them. Another lesson is that patience pays. After waiting for a few weeks for some interviews, the results were encouraging because the expatriate managers were very knowledgeable and their experience of both cultures provided rich data.

It was disappointing that there was not much literature on the general culture of Kenya or Ethiopia except for the individual ethnic groups. Books on history emphasize the political, geographic and social aspects of the country (refer to appendix III on Country Profile). Fortunately, we were able to get sufficient information on HRM in the two countries indicating the context in which the expatriate managers were expected to work. In addition, indigenous and modern cultures in these countries and the NGO environment are a relevant contribution to the knowledge needed by expatriate managers. Both countries were reluctant to give information on expatriates and especially managers because they could be a target for terrorism. The number of expatriate managers in the country, information of those who have left pre-maturely, and information on INGOs is not for public use, according to the head of NGO desk in Ethiopia and the head of immigration department in Kenya.

4.6.4 Reflexivity

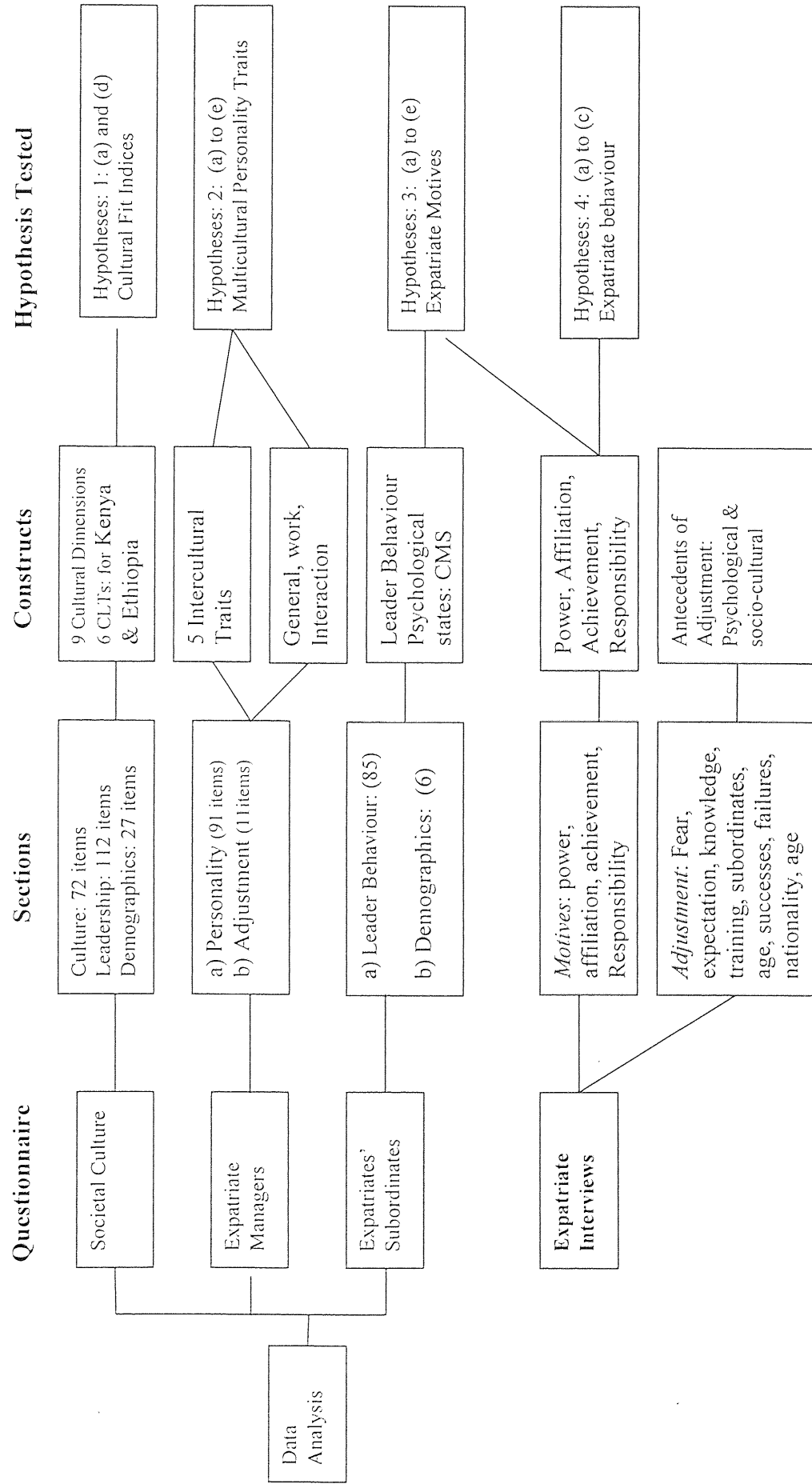
The topic of culture and leadership was chosen because of the researchers experience as an expatriate manager in a foreign culture (Ethiopia). The assumptions made in meetings about the culture in which we were visitors showed that there was little understanding of the culture and the people. As leaders in international non-governmental organizations, we were expected to implement the organizational goals and had no time to interact with people outside the workplace. Furthermore, we were not allowed to visit certain places, eat or drink in certain restaurants or bars and had to report to the authorities if we wanted to visit certain areas in the country. Without knowing the history and background to these rules, certain managers felt that they were not free, little did they know that it was for their protection. Due to time constraint, a number of them had not got cross cultural training or proper briefing about the country and this manifested itself in their reactions towards the people and the government.

For Kenya, the interest was in the numerous NGOs and INGOs and having had work experience in some of them the researcher was interested in leadership and the way the expatriate managers adjusted and why some had negative publicity from the media. An

example of a bank manager who was fired because he spent most of his time playing golf is explained in appendix VI (E). This background affected data collection because of the assumption that having worked in these countries, the researcher would easily get access to managers. A vital lesson learnt here was that each country is different and ways of access can vary from simple acceptance to participate to request for payment by participants. Since this was the first time for the researcher to undertake such a project, the lessons learnt would benefit future research.

As regards interviews, the managers appeared more relaxed after being informed that the researcher had been an expatriate manager and was interested in how they adjusted and their experiences as managers and leaders. It was as if we were colleagues as some shared their joys and frustrations and what they had observed in the culture (much of this is explained in the interview and discussion chapters). Some commented that they were glad it was an African doing this research rather than someone from another continent, because they felt the interpretation would be biased against the African countries. Although this maybe true, it can be argued that the researcher may be biased in favour of the African countries. The advantage is that experience of living in some of the expatriate managers' countries and living in the two host countries gives the researcher an opportunity to critically reflect on the findings and their implications. The second part of this chapter gives an analysis of data and some preliminary results. A detailed explanation will be given in chapter five and six.

Figure 4.1: Data Analysis Schedule



Part 2: Analysis of Data and Preliminary Results

4.7 Analysis of Data

Figures 4.1 show schedule of analysis. Societal culture data was analysed resulting in cultural and leadership dimensions. Expatriate managers' data resulted in facets of adjustment, and expatriate multicultural personality traits. The subordinate data analysis resulted in expatriate leader behaviour and subordinate reactions to these behaviours, namely, subordinates' organizational commitment, motivation and job satisfaction.

Interview data from expatriate managers was analysed for leader motives and expatriate experience and adjustment. The findings from both qualitative and quantitative data will be explained in detail in chapters five and six. Having obtained the data, coded it and entered it into SPSS and the transcribed interviews in NVIVO; we commence by validating the scales, establish reliability and construct validity, and present initial scores of the various variables in this study.

4.7.1 Standardization of Scores

The initial analysis involved standardizing the scores, calculating cultural distance and indices and conducting factor analysis. Data was collected in Kenya and Ethiopia from three sources; host nation middle managers, expatriate managers, and immediate subordinates to the expatriates. The raw scores from societal culture practices, values and leadership behaviour were adjusted for response bias. People from different cultures respond in characteristic ways when completing questionnaires (Triandis, 1994). Therefore, cross cultural researchers believe that the presence of culturally based response patterns biases comparisons based on self-report data because these patterns are not a function of the intended construct of interest. Furthermore, it is argued that interpretation of rank of cultures on average corrected scales scores is problematic. Some correction is needed to minimize the influence of this bias and standardize the data items within each individual (House et al, 2004:737). These response bias corrected scores were computed using SPSS. First, we computed the mean and standard deviation within each individual. Second, we then created the corrected items using the formula:

$$\text{Z-score of each item} = (\text{item} - \text{mean}) / \text{Standard Deviation}$$

This enabled us to standardize the data items within each individual. Finally, we created scales using these "corrected items".

4.7.2 Cultural Distance and Cultural Fit Indices

Cultural distance has received a great deal of attention in the international business literature (Morisini, 1994; Barkema et al, 1996; O'Grady and Lane, 1996 and House et al, 2004). Evans (2000) mentions that it has been identified as a key factor in explaining foreign market attractiveness, expansion patterns, the degree of adaptation of marketing and retailing, modes of entry, and adaptation of foreign staff in new settings. A study by Evans and Mavondo (2002) on national culture and Kogut and Singh's (1988) index of cultural distance, show some limitations and offer an alternative operationalization of cultural distance. This study calculates indices of cultural distance as a measure of cultural fit between host and parent countries.

Cultural distance can be defined as the degree to which norms and values or working methods between two companies differ because of their separate national characteristics (Evans and Mavondo, 2002). We develop a measure of cultural distance on the basis of the dimensions of national culture. Data was collected measuring aspects of culture in Kenya and Ethiopia on nine societal culture dimensions and an overall (average) score for each country on each dimension calculated.

Distances between cultures were calculated by calculating the Euclidean distance between each pair of countries on all nine variables:

$$dist(x_a, x_b) = \frac{1}{p} \sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^p (y_{ma} - y_{mb})^2} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

Where there are p dimensions of interest (in this case, nine), and y_{ma} is the value of country a on dimension m .⁵⁶ This approach may also leave a certain amount of latitude for the researcher to determine which dimensions constitute the culture of interest. Although it could be argued that this introduces some subjectivity into the measurement process, Dawson and Brodbeck, (2006) believe that it gives the opportunity to improve the nature of the construct being studied, as long as the choice of dimensions is made on a theoretical basis (Dawson and Brodbeck, 2006, 11).

To calculate the indices, first standardized scores were obtained for the twenty eight expatriate managers' countries, and host countries Kenya and Ethiopia on the nine cultural dimensions and six leadership dimensions. Equation 1 was used to calculate the distance between the cultures. Table 4.8 shows the indices of cultural practices and values, and leader behaviour (CLTs). The

⁵⁶ Unless there is reason to believe the response scales on all dimensions are absolutely equivalent, values of y should be standardized first, which was done in this study

difference in culture is minimized if the index is closer to zero. These indices were used to test hypothesis on culture, adjustment and subordinate psychological states.

Table 4.8: Scores for Facets of Expatriate Adjustment and Cultural fit Indices for Societal Cultural Practices, Values and CLT

	Country of Expatriate	General Adjustment	Work Adjustment	Interaction Adjustment	Cultural Practices Fit Index	Cultural Values Fit Index	CIT Fit Index	Host Country
1	Ireland	5.83	6.40	6.20	.0991	.1736	.1443	Kenya
2	Ireland	4.83	6.60	5.00	.0991	.1736	.1443	Kenya
3	USA	5.83	6.00	6.00	.1646	.1707	.1039	Kenya
4	Ireland	5.83	5.80	6.20	.0991	.1736	.1443	Kenya
5	USA	5.67	5.80	5.40	.1646	.1707	.1039	Kenya
6	Switzerland	5.83	5.80	5.00	.2819	.1940	.2189	Kenya
7	Germany	5.17	6.20	5.80	.2784	.2382	.2231	Kenya
8	England	4.33	5.20	4.60	.2250	.1701	.1518	Kenya
9	USA	5.33	6.40	6.20	.1646	.1707	.1039	Kenya
10	Canada	6.17	6.60	6.20	.1804	.2326	.1290	Kenya
11	USA	6.50	6.60	6.20	.3169	.2001	.0901	Ethiopia
12	Canada	6.17	6.20	4.80	.3189	.2487	.1269	Ethiopia
13	Ireland	5.67	6.60	6.40	.2088	.1950	.1263	Ethiopia
14	England	5.17	5.80	5.80	.3534	.1871	.1342	Ethiopia
15	England	4.67	4.60	4.20	.3534	.1871	.1342	Ethiopia
16	Belgium	5.67	6.00	5.60	.4156	.5200	.1795	Ethiopia
17	Malta	6.67	6.60	6.60	.2759	.1344	.1795	Ethiopia
18	Philippines	4.33	5.80	6.20	.1631	.1832	.1021	Ethiopia
19	Ireland	6.67	7.00	6.80	.2088	.1950	.1263	Ethiopia
20	USA	6.33	5.60	5.40	.3169	.2001	.0901	Ethiopia
21	USA	4.17	5.80	3.80	.3169	.2001	.0901	Ethiopia
22	Colombia	4.00	6.00	5.80	.2191	.1063	.0918	Ethiopia
23	Chile	6.67	6.80	7.00	.2123	.1064	.1480	Ethiopia
24	India	5.00	5.00	5.00	.1910	.1729	.1408	Ethiopia
25	Portugal	3.50	4.60	5.20	.1960	.1408	.1749	Ethiopia
26	Italy	3.83	5.40	4.00	.2412	.1091	.1724	Ethiopia
27	Italy	5.00	6.20	5.60	.2412	.1091	.1724	Ethiopia
28	France	6.00	6.20	6.20	.3340	.1380	.3676	Ethiopia

Key

The Cultural Fit Index indicates the level of difference between the expatriate's country and the host country.

The difference is minimized if the index is close to zero.

Adjustment	Indices
Scores: 1 to 3.8: Not well adjusted	Index: 0.0 to 0.1: Very small difference
3.9 to 4.8 Moderately adjusted	0.15 to 0.25 Small difference
4.9 to 5.8 Well adjusted	0.30 to 0.50 Moderate Difference
5.9 to 7.0 Very well adjusted	Over 0.50 Significant difference

Most of the indices in the above table are small and some are moderate, none are "significant". The fit indices and their variance are at the lowest end of the scale.

4.7.3 Validating the Scales

4.7.3.1 Factor Analysis and Reliability for Expatriate Adjustment Scales

The process of interpreting factor analysis results focuses on the determination of the number of factors to retain (Mertler and Vannata, 2003: 260). Only loadings greater than .50 were reported (Table 4.9). Three factors have eigenvalues greater than 1, accounting for 70.67% of the total variance of the eleven-item scale. This criterion is fairly reliable when the number of variables is < 30 as is in this study. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of assumption requires that KMO should be greater than .70 in this case it is .626 while the Bartlett's test should be significant at less than .05; it is significant at .001, with Chi-square of 166.623.

The procedure of factor analysis produced three factors or facets of adjustment (General, work and Interaction adjustment) Table 4.9. These three facets are significantly correlated (.63, .66 and .68, $p < .01$). Therefore, although we cannot consider them to be independent facets of adjustment, and together could be considered as overall adjustment, for the sake of analysis the three facets are used separately when necessary and otherwise, the overall adjustment scale is used.

4.7.3.2 Factor Analysis and Reliability for Subordinate Reaction Scales

Factor analysis was conducted for subordinates' reactions to expatriate managers' behaviour. The ten items scale was analysed using a principal component factor analysis procedure. The KMO and the Bartlett test of sphericity for all the components of the psychological states indicated the suitability of conducting factor analysis. It was hypothesized that there were three factors in these ten items and three items emerged with Eigen values greater than 1 (Table. 4.10). These three factors explained 76.29% of the variance in the ten item set.

Only loading greater than .50 were reported. The determinant is .010 which is more than .0001. The KMO is .629 while for the Bartlett's test, Chi-square is .170.38, significant at the .001 level. The procedure produced three factors or psychological states namely, commitment, motivation and satisfaction. The factor satisfaction was significantly correlated with both motivation and commitment ($\alpha = .46$ and $.43$ respectively) at $p < .01$, but motivation and commitment were not significantly correlated ($\alpha = .21$). Although the commitment and motivation are significantly correlated with satisfaction it is important to still consider them to be independent factors of subordinate psychological states. The behaviours

of expatriate managers are expected to result in strong follower (subordinate) motivation, and organizational commitment. These subordinates on their part will express satisfaction and trust in the expatriate leader (House et al, 1991; Smith, 1992) and respond by better performance (Bass, 1995). These three components, as mentioned earlier in this study, are a set of dependent variables and are referred to as CMS, which is an acronym for commitment, motivation and satisfaction.

Table 4.9 Results of Factor Analysis and Reliability for Expatriate Adjustment

Adjustment Items ^a	Factor Analysis	Reliability Analysis		
	Loadings	Alpha if Item Removed	Item-Total Correlation ^b	Alpha
Factor 1: General Adjustment				.87
Food	.90	.81	.83	
Entertainment	.86	.82	.78	
Shopping	.83	.83	.77	
Working with co-workers	.54	.88	.63	
Eigenvalue	4.87			
Percentage of variance	44.28			
Factor 2: Work Adjustment				.79
Working with Co-workers	.54	.73	.62	
General living in the country	.82	.70	.72	
Job and responsibilities	.76	.74	.60	
Weather	.68	.76	.53	
Supervising subordinates	.55	.81	.41	
Eigenvalue	1.64			
Percentage of variance	14.84			
Factor 3: Interaction Adjustment				.76
Interacting with others in general	.89	.67	.56	
Working with those outside your organization	.83	.39	.73	
Transport system	.57	.82	.46	
Eigenvalue	1.27			
Percentage of variance	11.44			
Determinant = .001				
Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) = .626				
Bartlett test of sphericity Chi-square = 166.623 (p = 0.001)				
Overall Adjustment: (The three facets combined) alpha = .86 N=28				

^a Mean score on seven point scale where 1 = Not adjusted and 7 = very well adjusted

^b Product moment correlation all significant at 0.001 level

4.7.3.3 Discriminant Analysis

Regional Clustering of Societal Cultures

The GLOBE project grouped 61 societal cultures into a set of ten regional clusters (House et al, 2004; 178). What is of interest to us here is the positioning Kenya and Ethiopia into these clusters through Discriminant analysis. Results indicated that both Kenya and Ethiopia can be classified into the Sub Saharan Cluster. Ethiopia can also be classified into the Middle East cluster⁵⁷.

Empirical Test of Societal Clusters

A discriminant analysis was conducted to determine whether nine variables – cultural dimensions, could predict the societal cluster of a country. Both the standard and stepwise procedure in discriminant analysis were used. Nine functions were generated and were significant, $\Lambda = .001$, $\chi^2 (90, N=63) = 464.608$, $p < .001$, (Stepwise Approach) and, $\Lambda = .000$, $\chi^2 (162, N=63) = 589.313$, $p < .0001$ (standard approach) indicating that the function of predictors significantly differentiated countries in the 10 societal clusters. Standardized function coefficients and correlation coefficients revealed that the variables were most associated with the function. Original classification results revealed that 97.3 of the countries were correctly classified. For the overall sample, 98.6% were correctly classified. Cross validation derived 84.5% accuracy of the total sample. The means of the discriminant function were consistent with these results. We now proceed with more reliability analysis, construct validity and response bias.

4.7.4 Reliability

4.7.4.1 Cultural and Leadership Dimensions

Reliability test was conducted to measure both the consistency and stability of the data collected. Consistency indicates how well the items measuring a concept hang together as asset.

The items used in this study had been tested and found to be reliable. The reliability of the scales for societal and leadership dimensions was assessed by GLOBE with respect to two

⁵⁷ Appendix V (C) shows the classification results of predicted group membership. Graphs also show the positioning of Kenya and Ethiopia in the clusters.

Table 4.10: Results of Factor Analysis and Reliability for Subordinate Reactions (Psychological States)

Psychological States Items ^a	Factor Analysis	Reliability Analysis		
	Loadings	Alpha if Item Removed	Item-Total Correlation ^b	Alpha
Factor 1: Satisfaction				.84
I agree with the chief executive's vision of this organization	.88	.76	.74	
The top managers work as an effective team	.85	.78	.70	
I expect the organization to have an excellent future	.78	.76	.74	
People at my level work well together	.57	.85	.52	
Eigenvalue	3.90			
Percentage of variance	43.36			
Factor 2: Commitment				.73
I contribute to this organization 100% of my ability	.88	.53	.65	
My effort is above and beyond that which is required	.81	.68	.54	
I am willing to make serious personal sacrifices to contribute to the organization	.63	.71	.50	
Eigenvalue	1.49			
Percentage of variance	16.54			
Factor 3: Motivation				.78
I expect to be with this organization three years from now	.90		.64	
I am optimistic about my future in this organization	.85		.64	
Eigenvalue	.115			
Percentage of variance	1.27			
	12.73			
Determinant = .010 Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) = .629 N=28 Bartlett test of sphericity Chi-square = 170.38 (p = 0.001)				

^a Mean score on seven point scale where 1 = strongly agree and 7 = strongly disagree

^b Product moment correlation all significant at 0.001 level

random error sources (House et al, 2004:136) First the internal consistency of the scales was calculated at the organizational or societal level of analysis to assess the degree to which the scales were free from error caused by internal variability. These internal consistency estimates were calculated by first aggregating the items comprising each scale to the organizational or societal level of analysis and then computing Cronbach's alpha on the basis of these averaged item responses. Table 4.11 shows the internal consistency of the scales. The average Cronbach alpha for the society cultural practices (As Is) and societal values (Should Be) scales were .77 and .75 respectively and for organizational cultural practices and values were .61 and .55 respectively. For the 21 leadership attribute subscales it was .75.

Second, GLOBE researchers explored the extent to which the scales exhibited inter-rater reliability. They assumed that an average of 45 responses⁵⁸ per organization or society were available and computed ICC (Shrout and Fleis, 1979) for the scales to assess the extent to which the scales exhibited interrater reliability (House et al, 2004). The average ICC for the organizational cultural practices (AS IS) and cultural Values (Should Be) scales were .92 and .94 respectively. The average ICC for the societal cultural practices (As Is) and cultural values (Should Be) scales were .93 and .95 respectively. While the averages ICC for the leadership attribute subscales was .90. In summary, these results strongly suggest that by the averaging the responses of at least 45 respondents, the scales exhibited sufficient reliability to differentiate organizations and societies on the culture and leadership scales (Ibid, p. 136). Table 4.11 gives a summary of reliability test.

4.7.4.2 Expatriate Personality and Adjustment

The internal consistencies of the Cultural Empathy, Open-mindedness, Social initiative, emotional Stability and Flexibility scales were high. The Cultural Empathy, Open-mindedness and Flexibility scales with 18 items each had an alpha of .93 respectively. The social Initiative scale with 17 items had an alpha of .94 while the Emotional Stability scale with 20 items had an alpha of .95. These results indicate the high reliability of these scales. Regarding the adjustment scales, it was hypothesized that there were three factors in the eleven items. The three scales from the 11 items gave the following results: General adjustment with 8 items had an alpha of .81, while interaction adjustment with 5 items has .71. Work adjustment with 3 items had an alpha of .66.

⁵⁸ Generalizability analysis conducted by GLOBE indicated that an average of 45 respondents per organization or society were needed to have reliable scaling of organizations or societies (house et al, 2004:147). In this study, Ethiopia had 114 respondents while Kenya had 46.

Table 4.11 Reliability Results for organizational and Societal Culture Scales and the CLT Subscales

GLOBE Cultural Dimension Scales	ORGANIZATIONAL		SOCIETAL	
	Internal Consistency	ICC*	Internal Consistency	ICC*
Practices (As Is)				
Performance Orientation	.68	.93	.72	.87
Assertiveness	.60	.93	.75	.91
Future Orientation	.57	.91	.80	.92
Humane Orientation	.78	.89	.88	.91
Institutional Collectivism	.44	.90	.67	.93
In-Group Collectivism	.70	.91	.77	.98
Gender Egalitarianism	.46	.96	.66	.90
Power Distance	.55	.92	.80	.91
Uncertainty Avoidance	.67	.95	.88	.96
Values (Should Be)				
Performance Orientation	.61	.94	.90	.89
Assertiveness	.50	.95	.53	.95
Future Orientation	.52	.90	.76	.92
Humane Orientation	.61	.92	.70	.84
Institutional Collectivism	.43	.93	.77	.95
In-Group Collectivism	.63	.95	.66	.87
Gender Egalitarianism	.65	.96	.88	.95
Power Distance	.45	.91	.74	.88
Uncertainty Avoidance	.60	.96	.85	.96
CLT Dimensions	Internal Consistency		Interrater Reliability	
Charismatic/Value-Based	.95		.98	
Team Oriented	.93		.96	
Self-Protective	.93		.98	
Participative	.85		.95	
Humane Orientated	.76		.93	
Autonomous	.59		.87	

* An assessment of the extent to which the scales are generalizable across different respondents in an organization or society (i.e. interrater reliability (Shrout and Fleiss, 1979))

4.7.4.3 Expatriate Leader Behaviour and Subordinate Reaction Scales.

The reliability test was conducted to measure the consistency of the data collected from immediate subordinates on leader behaviour and psychological states of the subordinates, namely, commitment, motivation and satisfaction (CMS). The results of reliability are given in table. 4.12.

Table 4.12 Reliability results for leader behaviour and CMS

Leader Behaviour	Internal Consistency	Interrater Reliability
Charismatic/Value-Based	.91	.61
Support Reward	.85	.60
Directive	.67	.34
Fairness in Evaluation	.84	.72
Self Protective	.93	.98
Humane Oriented	.76	.93
Participative	.59	.87
Team Oriented	.93	.96
Autonomous	.59	.87
Subordinate Reactions		
CMS	.71	.58
Commitment	.61	.39
Motivation	.57	.53
satisfaction	.73	.47

4.8 Descriptive Statistics

4.8.1 Societal Culture and Expatriate Managers Data

Data from three questionnaires was coded and a Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 14, was used in analysing the data. Initially, raw aggregated scores were obtained and the response bias corrected scores were computed. The first analysis involved descriptive statistics. A set of sufficient statistic consisted of means, sample size and a measure of variability, i.e. standard deviation. The central tendency and the dispersion gave us a good idea of how the respondents had reacted to the items in the questionnaire and how good the item measures were.

4.8.2. Expatriate Manager and Subordinate Data

Table 4.13 presents descriptive statistics and frequencies of expatriate manager and subordinate data. The descriptive statistics show the mean and standard deviation of

expatriate multicultural personality traits and motives, subordinate psychological states, and leader behaviour rated by subordinates. The mean of five multicultural personality traits scores range from 3.25 (flexibility) to 3.94 (cultural empathy) on a scale of 5, with emotional stability scoring (3.25), social initiative (3.84) and open mindedness (3.93). This indicates that expatriate managers in the study are reported to have strong cultural empathy, are open-minded and show initiative in social settings. They are moderately flexible to the culture and are moderately emotionally stable. Expatriate motive scores range from 2.07 on a scale of 7 for affiliation to 6.7 (achievement) and 3.7 (power motive) on a scale of 11, with responsibility disposition scoring 3.8 on a scale of 5.

Both the affiliation and power motives scored low which could mean that they did not intend to gain power or get involved with people at a deeper level. Their motive might have been to achieve the goal for which they were assigned and do it responsibly. On the three facets of adjustment, the means were 5.4 for general adjustment, 5.3 for interaction and 5.8 for work adjustment on a scale of 7. Since the scores are above 5, this indicates that the expatriate managers were well adjusted especially to work. The reason for the high scores may be because they were self rated. The results may have been different had the subordinates rated them.

All the psychological states of subordinates scored above 5; commitment (5.34), motivation (5.08) and job satisfaction (5.4) on a scale of 7. Immediate subordinates are generally reported to be satisfied with their jobs, are committed to the organization and are motivated. Expatriate leader behaviour scores (rated by subordinates) range from 3.76 (autonomous leader behaviour) to 5.37 (charismatic behaviour) on a scale of 7. Charismatic leader behaviour is preferred more than autonomous behaviour. The score of support/reward behaviour and fair evaluation behaviour were high with 5.20 and 4.96 respectively, while the other six, team oriented, humane oriented, self protective, participative and directive behaviour are around 4, which is around midpoint of the scale. Due to the sample size, only four leader behaviours were analysed, charismatic, supportive, fair evaluation and directive leader behaviour.

Some selected variables for frequencies are cultural training, marital status, nationality, gender, age, years worked in the organization and country of residence. Of the 28 expatriates, 13 (46.4%) had cultural training while 15 (53.6%) had none. Of these 16 (57.1%) were male and 12 (42.9%) female. Regarding marital status, 7 (25%) were married, 20 (71.4%) unmarried and 1 divorced. The expatriate managers who participated were from 15

countries, the majority being from USA (21.4%), Ireland (17.9%) and England (10.7%). Most of them are over 40 years of age (78%) with 10 (35.7%) working in Kenya and 18 (64.3%) working in Ethiopia. The relevance of this information is that it assists the researcher and reader with the necessary background necessary in interpreting and explaining results.

4.8.3 Cultural Practices

Table 4.14: presents the culture and leadership data for Kenya and Ethiopia. Culture and leadership are conceptualized in terms of nine cultural attributes and six leadership attributes, when quantified, are known as dimensions. The means for the nine cultural scores range from 3.16 (Gender Egalitarianism) to 5.52 (In-group collectivism) for Kenya and from 3 (Future Orientation) to 5.97 (In-group collectivism) for Ethiopia. In these two societies respondents reported a low level of future orientation (Ethiopia), somewhat male oriented (Kenya) and both are generally in-group oriented. For Kenya, with the exception of gender egalitarianism (lowest score on all practice dimensions), the means of six of the cultural practices scores, namely, Assertiveness, Institutional Collectivism, Future Orientation, Humane Orientation, Performance Orientation, Power Distance and Uncertainty avoidance, are around 4, which is close to the mid point of the scale. In-Group Collectivism score is above 5 on the 7 point scale showing that this society is generally In-group oriented meaning that individuals are integrated into strong cohesive groups. For Ethiopia, the means of cultural practices, namely Assertiveness, Future Orientation, Gender Egalitarianism, and Performance Orientation are low, meaning that this society views Assertiveness as socially unacceptable and values modesty and tenderness (House et al, 2004:405); have lower levels of economic success (ibid, p. 302); is male oriented (ibid, p. 359); and values societal and family relationships (ibid. p. 245). Both Humane Orientation and In-Group Collectivism are above a score of 5 meaning that in this society others are important (i.e. family, friends, community and strangers) (ibid. p. 570) and individuals are integrated into strong cohesive groups.

4.8.4 Cultural Values

The means of the nine cultural value scores range from 2.49 and 2.45 (Power Distance) for both Kenya and Ethiopia to 6.23 and 6.37 (Performance Orientation) respectively (Table 4:14). This is the same range as that of the GLOBE societies (House et al, 2004:31). These two societies prefer lower levels of power differentiation and higher levels of performance.

Table 4.13: Results for Cultural and Leadership Dimensions

A. Scores for Societal Cultural Practices

Country	Assertiveness	Institutional Collectivism	In-Group Collectivism	Future Orientation	Gender Egalitarianism	Humane Orientation	Performance Orientation	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance
Sub-Saharan Cluster	4.14 (A)	4.25 (B)	5.13 (B)	3.85 (B)	3.37 (B)	4.09 (C)	4.10 (B)	5.17 (B)	4.16 (B)
Kenya & Ethiopia	3.62 (B)	4.37 (B)	5.84 (A)	3.21 (C)	3.30 (B)	4.92 (A)	3.58 (C)	4.79 (B)	3.76 (C)
Kenya	4.21 (A)	4.16 (B)	5.52 (A)	3.79 (C)	3.16 (B)	4.58 (B)	4.34 (A)	4.69 (C)	4.14 (B)
Ethiopia	3.38 (C)	4.45 (B)	5.97 (A)	3.00 (D)	3.35 (B)	5.06 (A)	3.27 (C)	4.80 (B)	3.60 (C)

Score Bands

A (High)	4.89-6.15	5.22-4.59	6.36-5.35	5.07-4.44	4.08-3.47	5.23-4.73	4.49-4.32	5.80-5.28	5.37-4.75
B(Medium)	4.13-3.59	4.54-3.93	5.32-4.37	4.39-3.81	3.42-2.81	4.69-4.18	4.27-3.72	5.25-4.74	4.70-4.09
C (Low)	3.47-3.38	3.92-3.53	4.26-3.53	3.80-3.21	2.58-2.50	4.17-3.66	3.67-3.20	4.73-4.51	4.07-3.50
D		3.25		3.11-2.88		3.63-3.18		4.11-3.89	3.44-2.88
Cluster Average	3.66-4.55	3.86-4.88	3.75-5.87	3.38-4.40	2.95-3.84	3.55-4.71	3.73-4.58	4.54-5.39	3.56-5.19

The score bands were formulated from the entire responses of all 62 GLOBE countries. They give a better picture of a society's position in relation to other countries that participated in the study. Above are the ranges for high, low, and medium bands. Below is the rating of Kenya and Ethiopia on these score bands:

Kenya	High	Medium	High	Low	Medium	Medium	High	Low	Medium
Ethiopia	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	Low

Like the GLOBE Societies whose mean scores for values are lower than those for practices in the case of two dimensions: power distance (-2.42) and Assertiveness (-0.32), and for all other dimensions the mean values scores are higher than the mean practices scores, Kenya has power distance (-2.20) and Assertiveness (-0.31). For Ethiopia the mean value scores of power distance (-2.35) and In-group collectivism (-0.36) were lower than mean practices scores which means that in this society people are content with power distance and in-group collectivism as is presently practiced.

4.8.5 Leadership Dimensions (CLTs)

Leadership attributes were statistically grouped in 21 “first order” primary factors (henceforth called primary leadership dimensions) that were then consolidated into six “second order” global leadership dimensions. Combined they represent the culturally endorsed leadership theory dimensions (CLT) (House et al, 2004, p.40). Table 4.15 presents the scores for leadership dimensions (CLTs)

The six global CLT leadership dimensions used are:

- a) Charismatic/Value based leadership: This is generally reported to contribute to outstanding leadership. For both Kenya and Ethiopia, the scores were 5.99 and 6.11 respectively on a 7 point scale indicating a high contribution to outstanding leadership.
- b) Team Oriented and Participative are also generally reported to contribute to outstanding leadership although there are meaningful differences among countries and clusters. The mean scores range from 5.73 and 5.83 for Team Oriented to 5.71 and 5.73 for participative leadership for Kenya and Ethiopia respectively. These findings concur with the GLOBE findings (House et al, 2004:41).
- c) Although Humane Orientation Leadership is reported to be neutral in some societies and moderately contribute to outstanding leadership in others, for Kenya and Ethiopia it contributes highly, i.e. 5.45 and 5.30 respectively.
- d) Autonomous leadership is reported to range from impeding outstanding leadership to slightly facilitating outstanding leadership. Kenya reported 3.36 (slightly inhibits), while Ethiopia reported 3.60 (close to the mid point of no impact).

Table 4.14: Scores for Societal Cultural Values

Country	Assertiveness	Institutional Collectivism	In-Group Collectivism	Future orientation	Gender Egalitarianism	Humane Orientation	Performance Orientation	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance
Sub Saharan Cluster	3.82	4.73	5.66	5.49	4.51	5.42	5.94	2.75	4.62
Kenya & Ethiopia	3.57	4.86	5.60	5.98	4.41	5.45	6.33	2.46	5.13
Kenya	3.89 (B)	4.87 (B)	5.58 (B)	5.88 (A)	4.49 (B)	5.47 (B)	6.23 (B)	2.49 (D)	5.12 (A)
Ethiopia	3.45 (B)	4.86 (B)	5.61 (B)	6.02 (A)	4.38 (B)	5.45 (B)	6.37 (A)	2.45 (D)	5.08 (A)

Score Bands

A (High)	5.56-5.10	5.65-5.10	6.52-5.97	6.20-5.69	5.17-4.63	6.09-5.76	6.58-6.24	3.65-3.41	5.61-5.07
B (Medium)	4.38-3.21	5.03-4.55	5.95-5.41	5.68-5.19	4.60-4.16	5.69-5.40	6.23-5.89	3.24-2.97	4.99-4.43
C (Low)	3.09-2.66	4.50-3.94	5.35-4.94	5.15-4.73	4.06-3.68	5.36-5.01	5.82-5.61	2.86-2.54	4.42-3.85
D		3.82-3.00		4.33	3.45-3.18	4.99	5.54-5.25	2.49-2.19	3.83-3.32
E						4.49	5.17-4.92	2.04	3.24-3.16
C Average	3.07-4.65	4.08-5.32	5.16-6.06	4.76-5.87	3.65-4.91	5.31-5.64	5.53-6.24	2.51-3.03	3.46-5.16

The score bands were formulated from the entire responses of all 62 GLOBE countries. They give a better picture of a society's position in relation to other countries that participated in the study. Above are the ranges for high, low, and medium bands. Below is the rating of Kenya and Ethiopia on these score bands:

Kenya	Medium	Medium	Medium	High	Medium	Medium	Medium	Low	High
Ethiopia	Medium	Medium	Medium	High	Medium	Medium	High	Low	High

- e) Finally, self protective leadership is generally reported to inhibit outstanding leadership. Both Kenya and Ethiopia had low scores of 3.18 and 3.62 respectively.

Table 4.15: Leadership CLT Scores

Country	CLT Leadership Dimensions					
	Autonomous	Charismatic Value Based	Humane Oriented	Self Protective	Participative	Team Orientation
Sub-Saharan Cluster	3.63 (B)	5.59 (D)	5.16 (A)	3.55 (E)	5.31 (C)	5.70 (B)
Kenya & Ethiopia	3.50 (B)	6.06 (B)	5.36 (A)	3.57 (E)	5.73 (B)	5.79 (B)
Kenya	3.36 (C)	5.99 (C)	5.45 (A)	3.48 (E)	5.71 (B)	5.73 (B)
Ethiopia	3.60 (B)	6.11 (B)	5.30 (A)	3.62 (D)	5.73 (B)	5.83 (B)

Score Bands

A (High)	4.63-4.03	6.46-6.23	5.75-5.33	4.62	6.09-5.80	6.21-5.97
B (High)	4.02-3.43	6.15-6.00	5.27-4.87	4.34-4.12	5.75-5.54	5.95-5.72
C (Medium)	3.39-3.19	5.99-5.79	4.85-4.44	4.02-3.86	5.51-5.29	5.44
D (Medium)	2.27	5.76-5.54	4.38-4.08	3.83-3.60	5.22-4.96	5.23-5.11
E (Low)		5.53-5.49	3.82	3.57-3.32	4.92-4.67	4.74
F „		5.16		3.31-3.07	4.64-4.50	
G „		4.93		3.05-2.81		
H „		4.81		2.55		

The score bands give an indication of a society's position in the overall responses. Generally, since the scale is measured from 1 to 7, we assume that the scores around 4 are the average and scores below that are low and those above are high. With the exception of self-protective and autonomous behaviour, the other leader behaviours have scores of above 5 which is high. In Kenya and Ethiopia, Autonomous and Self protective leader behaviour impede outstanding leadership.

Band classification

Kenya	Medium	Medium	High	Low	High	High
Ethiopia	High	High	High	Medium	High	High

Key

Inhibits or contributes to outstanding leadership

1. Greatly inhibits	Low
1 Somewhat inhibits	
2 slightly inhibits	Medium
3 has no impact	
4 contributes slightly	High
5 contributes somewhat	
7 contributes greatly	

4.9 Methods of Qualitative Data Analysis

An examination of the various methods gives a rationale for the method used in this study. There are various methods of data analysis such as Successive Approximation, the Illustrative Method, the Analytical Comparison and Domain Analysis among others (Silverman, 2001). The method used depends on the focus of the researcher. Successive approximation involves repeated iterations or cycling through steps, moving towards a final analysis, i.e. from vague ideas and concrete details in the data towards a comprehensive analysis with generalizations. The Illustrative method uses empirical evidence to illustrate or anchor a theory. The researcher applies theory to a concrete historical situation or social setting, or organizes data on the basis of prior theory. The Analytical comparison by John Stuart Mill (1806-1973) is based on the method of agreement and method of difference. Here, the researcher develops ideas about regularities or patterned relations from pre-existing theories or induction. Finally, domain analysis developed by James Spradley (1979) is an innovative and comprehensive approach for analyzing qualitative data. He defined the basic unit in a cultural setting as a domain, or organizing idea or concept. His system is built on analyzing domains.

This research utilizes the Illustrative method. Pre-existing theory on expatriate adjustment and motivation provides the empty boxes and the researcher saw whether evidence can be gathered to fill them. The empty boxes included the experiences and motives of expatriates as they adjusted in Kenya and Ethiopia whether or not their responses confirmed or rejected the theories of expatriate adjustment and leader motives. The model of adjustment with its various antecedents of adjustment can have evidence provided by this study with illustrations from Kenya and Ethiopia. This is expected to demonstrate the applicability of the model in several cases. Themes and sub themes were derived from the interview data. The next discussion briefly explains the themes and content analysis.

4.9.1 Themes

The model of this study suggests that expatriate manager's adjustment is affected by various factors including the attitudes, perceptions and stereotypes of the expatriate and host nation employees (subordinates). This can be changed with an understanding of each other's culture and accepting differences in work values, socialization, and view of life. Expatriate managers' behaviour will have an impact on subordinates job satisfaction, motivation and organizational commitment. From this theoretical background themes were derived from literature to be used in qualitative analysis.

The five major themes according to which the text was coded were: adjustment, knowledge experience, motives, and personality. These themes were chosen to represent the entire experience of the expatriate manager in the adjustment process by capturing the major variables in the experiences and inquiring about them in the questions.

Adjustment is explained in literature as a multidimensional concept related to socio-cultural and psychological aspects (Aycan, 1997; Selmer, 2002). These aspects are analysed in the context of success and difficulties with the assignment (Gabel et al, 2005), strengths and deficiencies in organizational support (Forster, 1999; Selmer, 2001; Lee, 2005), expectations and fears of the expatriate manager (Ashford & Taylor, 1990), and subordinate reaction as observed by the expatriate manager. It was included in the study because it is the core theme and variables connected to it are expected to be predictive of expatriate managers' adjustment.

The theme "Knowledge" refers to what is known about the parent and host countries. This is necessary for both expatriates and their immediate subordinates in order to understand each other and interact appropriately. They need to know the general way of life, preferences, management styles, customs and traditions etc. In this case, training is vital in order to be aware of the cultures (Forster, 2000; Smith and Still, 1997). Another important theme is "Experience" especially prior to the current assignment (Black et al, 1995; Selmer, 2001). Experience can be helpful and harmful if not used in the right context. Cultures are different especially in Africa and having worked successfully in West Africa does not mean automatic success in Eastern Africa. Several factors such as motives and personality have to be considered.

Therefore, it seemed logical to consider the theme of "motive". Researchers over the years have investigated three basic motives: power, the affiliation and the achievement motive (Atkinson, 1958, McClelland, 1975, 1985a, 1985b). Drawn from Murray's (1938) human motivation taxonomy, these motives are suggested to represent the most important dimensions of human motivated behaviour (Atkinson, 1958). The interviews were intended to gather motive relevant information from expatriate managers. The interviews were coded for motive imagery (power, affiliation, achievement) using the Winter and Healy (1982) motive scoring system, as well as expressions of responsibility using the winter (1992) responsibility coding system. Investigation of these motives enable us to partially understand the expatriate manager's behaviour as a leader. Finally, the theme "personality" was considered because of

intercultural personality traits (Caliguiri, 2000; Deller, 1997; Alder, 1996; Selmer, 2002) that are suitable for foreign assignments. This was meant to complement the multicultural personality traits in the quantitative inquiry.

This section has argued for the incorporation of the five themes into expatriate manager's adjustment. These themes were extensively employed in content analysis, directed coding, and offered a format for the presentation of results. Content analysis is the next topic of discussion.

4.9.2 Content Analysis

Content analysis is the analysis of documents and texts that seek to quantify content in terms of predetermined categories and in a systematic and replicable manner (Bryman, 2001:180). The interviews were transcribed and coded according to the six major adjustment themes arising from literature. The qualitative data analysis software "QSR NVIVO 2.0" was used to facilitate the process. We utilised content analysis which is commonly used analytical tool in positivistic analysis, since it acknowledges that the researcher cannot be oblivious to the literature and thus cannot derive answers purely on the basis of data (Bryman, 2001). This is deductive rather than inductive since the analytical process is guided by theoretical/conceptual considerations (Scott, 1990).

In order to familiarize himself with the data, the interviewer read all transcripts before commencing coding (Bauer, 2000). A master coding sheet, containing coding titles, variable descriptions, and example text passages was created to guide the process (Available for review in Appendix VI). In view of content analysis, the text was only interpreted in view of the coding frame (Strauss, 1991). Therefore, no new thematic categories were added because they would distract us from the research question. However, it was acceptable to add unique emerging subcategories during the coding process. From what the respondents said, subcategories of the themes were formed (please refer to section on initial results in Chapter Six for the description of each theme and its subcategories). These were validated and approved by a second coder. Throughout the construction of the coding frame, the nature of categories, the type of coding variables, the way in which these were organized, and the way the data was to be coded were considered (Krippendorff, 1980).

In developing the coding we discussed these with colleagues. The interviews were also coded for motive imagery (power, affiliation, achievement) using the Winter and Healy (1982) motive scoring system, as well as expressions of responsibility using the winter (1992)

responsibility coding system. The coders did not know the name, organization, or position of the expatriates whose transcripts they coded. Both coders exceeded 75% agreement with expert practice coding materials. The inter-coder correlation coefficient for the achievement, affiliation, power motives, and responsibility were: .89, .89, .85 and .86 respectively.

In conclusion, the interviews were meant to provide a deeper understanding of the twenty eight expatriate managers' experience, motives, concerns and philosophy of management.

Below are some of the topics analysed and a summary of some of the main concerns.

- i) **Expectation:** regarding work, people and the country in general. The expectations maybe positive or negative and this will definitely affect the way the expatriate will interact with people in that country. The main concerns found through analysis were: Training (previous career/job), the new position, years of experience, knowledge and familiarity with culture, the language and coping strategies. Three expatriate managers had no real expectations.
- ii) **Fear:** of rejection, food, climate, the environment, leadership styles, communication and subordinate reaction. The solutions they gave to their initial fear were; acknowledging the fear and dealing with it, taking time to settle i.e. being patient, delegating, consulting, seeking advice and getting auditors, and finally accepting to live with differences and not forcing situations.
- iii) **Reasons for accepting assignment:** varied from personal i.e. individuals desires, prompted by inner need or external observation, to organizational, i.e. its strategy in response to subsidiary's request, its own mission in developing countries. Some were encouraged by family, friends and colleagues.
- iv) **Pre-knowledge:** of the host country. Few admitted that they knew very little, while the majority had some knowledge through reading, courses, previous experience, visits, and the media.
- v) **Success in adjustment:** in general, work, and interaction included both individual and organizational emphasizing the importance of the adjustment process
- vi) **Difficulties encountered in adjustment:** especially work and interaction related included lack of trust, personality problems, at the personal level, and financial constraints, staff, equipment, at the organizational level
- vii) **Cross cultural Training:** 60% had some training while 40% did not have. Those who had varied in the programs and content of the courses given. All confirmed that they found it useful

- viii) **Effects on age and nationality:** for most expatriates age and nationality was not an issue with the exception that the older expatriates felt what they were respected because of their age, assuming it to be the culture of these countries. What was of interest was gender for the female expatriate managers, the low number of women managers in some organization was worrying. Yet some said that a foreign female manager in these cultures felt genderless and ageless.
- ix) **Finally, the advice to new expatriates:** was “Keep your eyes and ears open, mouth shut; listen, listen and listen again!”

Regarding the data transcribed and coded for motives, affiliation motive scores were low for most managers with an average of 2 out of 7, achievement and responsibility disposition motive scores were high with an average of above 7 out of 11 and 4 out of 5 respectively, while power motive was low with an average of 4 out of 11. Most expatriate managers could be termed as high achievers and since they will be in the host country for a short period of time, some do not see the need to make close friends.⁵⁹ In view of this and other concerns, ethical issues were considered in the study, the next section deals with some of the ethical issues in qualitative research.

4.9.3 Ethical Issues in this Study

Robson (2002) defines ethics as principles and a system relating to what is right and wrong. It includes standards and codes of conduct adhered to in the research process.

Apart from the quality of knowledge produced from qualitative data analysis, we need to consider the rightness or wrongness of our actions as qualitative researchers in relation to the people whose lives we are studying, to our colleagues and to those who sponsor our work (Miles and Huberman, 1994). There are a number of moral and ethical questions to be pondered. In this section, we mention some ethical issues that relate to analysis and mention how we dealt with them.

Specific Ethical Issues

There are case descriptions provided by Sieber (1992), L.M. Smith (1990,1991), Burgess (1989), Marshall and Rossman (1989) and Whyte (1984) which indicate that ethical choices always occur in case context. We outline each issue briefly, posing key questions, giving mini-examples and citation, and suggesting the analysis related implications. The aim is to raise

⁵⁹ More explanation of this will be found in the next chapter.

awareness and make ethical issues more visible in this study. Ethical choices nearly always involve tradeoffs, balances, compromises among competing goods and threatening bads (Robson, 2002). There are a series of specific ethical issues mentioned by Deyhle et al., (1992) ranging from early ones (the study's worthiness, the researcher's competence, informed consent, anticipated benefits and costs) to those occurring as the study develops (harm and risk, relationship with respondents, privacy/confidentiality/anonymity, and intervention) and those prominent late (research quality, data ownership, and use of results). All these issues have clear implications for analysis and the quality of conclusions. As mentioned above ethical issues were encountered from the start of the study through its development to the use of results. Regarding the study's worthiness and competence of the researcher, these were determined by the university's examiners who approved the proposal of research and fieldwork. Implications for analysis from these issues are that care was taken in design and collection of data making it possible for replication. The interview questions can be used in interviewing other expatriate managers. The examiners gave suggestions while the researcher's supervisor approved the design. As for informed consent, the expatriate managers were informed about the study through a letter and later through a phone call inquiring if they consented to the interview. They consented to participate freely without coercion with the exception of two who declined because they felt that their headquarters in Europe would not approve. Although it can be argued (e.g. Elsner, 1991; Wax, 1982) that informed consent is impossible in qualitative studies because events in the field and the researcher's action such as following up new and promising leads, cannot be anticipated, the expatriates managers in this case were enthusiastic to participate in the study. They felt that as a former expatriate manager, the researcher understood their situation and would present it objectively. Wax (1992) suggests that reciprocity is far more important than informed consent. An implication of analysis on this issue is the importance of trusted relationships, the managers trusted the researcher who informed them of analysis of the interviews and that a summary of the report would be sent to them.

Another issue is that of benefits, costs and reciprocity. The concern was what each party in the study would gain and why they had to invest time, energy and money. The researcher's benefit is a dissertation and some articles which he hopes will create interest in research in expatriate management in Kenya and Ethiopia. The managers shared their experiences far beyond the requirement of the questions asked indicating that they trusted the researcher and were not constrained by time. The expatriate managers were interested in this research because its results would help them in their work especially in dealing with their subordinates.

The implication of analysis is that because of the researcher's deep sense of the study's action implications, it is thought that benefits to participants will be equitable.

As the study developed, other issues emerged such as what might this study do to hurt the people involved i.e. expatriate managers and their subordinates? McCall and Simmons (1969) believe that real or feared harm will always occur to someone in a qualitative study. There was fear from some expatriate managers who thought that what they shared would be misunderstood by the headquarters and may have negative consequences. They declined to participate but those who participated were trusting and took the risk. The implication for analysis is that since harm was not expected, access and data quality will not suffer. This is the result of honesty and trust between the researcher and the managers. The researcher was honest about the future of the inquiry and the managers were thought to be telling the truth because of their position in the organization. This trust made the continuation of the inquiry manageable.

An important ethical issue in the study was privacy, confidentiality and anonymity. Before the interview, the managers were informed that information about them and the interview would be kept confidential and their names would not be mentioned or linked to anything that could identify them. There would be anonymity, i.e. lack of identifiers showing that information would not indicate which individuals or organizations provided which data (Sieber, 1992). The information would be guarded. The implication for analysis was that the data collected was also used for quantitative analysis this protects data quality since there is triangulation.

Next we have the issue of research integrity and quality which involves the study being conducted carefully, thoughtfully and correctly in terms of some reasonable set of standards. The interviews with the managers were properly planned and they had the freedom to respond to the questions the way they felt appropriate. The thoroughness of the interviews and analysis makes our conclusions claim validity. Implications of analysis involve the study's confirmability, dependability, credibility and potential transferability to other settings. The researcher applied the principle of honesty in dealing with the fears and hesitations of the managers regarding the data collected and how it was to be analysed and reported. As mentioned by Miles and Huberman (1994) it is important to be honest on how the study was done and what the worries about the quality were. There is need for methodological frankness for the sake of the study and all those concerned.

Regarding ownership of data and conclusions from the study, the managers were informed that the data was to be used in writing a dissertation and for article publication. As for implications for analysis, examiners would question the researcher on the results of the interview and therefore, the goodness of conclusions will be improved through thorough examination and corrections if necessary.

In conclusion, dealing with ethical issues effectively involves heightened awareness, negotiation, and making trade-offs among ethical dilemmas, rather than the application of rules. This section has examined general ethical theories and a series of specific ethical issues including implications for analysis and the quality of conclusion.

4.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has described the methodology used in the study. A methodology is a model which entails theoretical principles as well as a framework that provides guidelines about how research is done in the context of a particular paradigm (see for example, Cook and Fonow, 1990:72; Harding, 1987:2; Lather, 1992:87). The first part was a description of the data which includes societal culture data, expatriate managers' and immediate subordinates' data. The questionnaires were derived from GLOBE Phase I and III. Expatriate adjustment questions were adapted from Black's study on American expatriates in Japan. Interview questions were formulated from literature review on expatriate adjustment and House et al's (2002) interviews of CEOs on leader experience and motives. This chapter has defined operational concepts and presented questionnaire and interview designs. It has given details of investigation by presenting by giving an overview of data collection and the advantages of using qualitative and quantitative inquiry. 250 questionnaires were distributed to 26 organizations and out of those returned 160 were useable while of the expatriate managers invited to participate, only 32 responded and 28 participated.

Constructs and measures were explained giving the culture and leadership construct definitions and sample questionnaire items. These items were designed to obtain data about societal and organizational cultural variables while the leader behaviour questionnaire items are based on a review of leadership literature and findings relevant to leadership resulting from focus groups, interviews, and analysis of media. The difficulties experienced in getting access, collecting data from both the expatriates, middle managers and governments were

presented. The social, economic and political situation of the countries studied had an effect on respondents. In Kenya the new elected government was trying to fight corruption while in Ethiopia government policies are strict. The Second part dealt with analysis of data and preliminary results. It explained standardization of scales, validating scales, factor analysis, reliability, descriptive statistics and finally methods of qualitative data analysis. The next chapter tests hypotheses and provides results regarding the middle managers on societal culture, expatriate managers on personality and adjustment, and immediate subordinates on expatriate managers' leader behaviour.

Chapter Five

Hypotheses Testing

This chapter deals with the testing of hypotheses. The procedure involves testing hypotheses on the following; a) Cultural fit indices (for cultural practices and values) b) Expatriate multicultural personality traits, and c) Expatriate motives and behaviours. It discusses findings in relation to the four main hypotheses mentioning some limitations, implications and future research. Finally, it concludes with a chapter summary.

Introduction

The details of the investigation carried out in this study were explained in the last chapter. As stated in Chapter 1, this study examines expatriate managers' adjustment (motives, leadership behaviour and personality) and its impact on subordinates by investigating cultural dimensions and leadership behaviours in Kenya and Ethiopia. This chapter is organized in terms of quantitative analysis by testing hypotheses. The research aims and questions will direct the focus of analysis and results.

5.1 Research Aims and Questions

The aim of this research is to provide insight into expatriate managers' adjustment (motives, leadership behaviour and personality) and its impact on subordinates and how this affects their foreign assignments in Kenya and Ethiopia. The aims and questions posed in order to achieve these aims are as follows:

1. *To determine societal culture and leader behaviour of the host nation considered to be essential to expatriate managers' adjustment*

What knowledge of the host nation's societal culture and leader behaviour facilitates a smooth socio-cultural adjustment for the expatriate managers?

2. *To identify expatriate managers' motives and leadership behaviours in the host country.*

What expatriate managers' motives and leadership behaviours are portrayed to immediate subordinates?

3. *To identify immediate subordinates' reactions to expatriate managers' motives and behaviours.*

What impact do expatriate managers' motives and behaviours have on the psychological states of immediate subordinates?

4. *To determine whether or not cross cultural training received by expatriate managers is sufficient and necessary for adjustment to the new culture.*

Do INGO expatriate managers to Kenya and Ethiopia receive appropriate training?

5. *To determine whether or not cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility will contribute to adaptability to Kenyan and Ethiopian cultures.*

What personality traits of expatriate managers are suitable for adjustment in Kenya and Ethiopia especially to work and immediate subordinates?

These research questions will be answered using results from both quantitative and qualitative data. This chapter deals with hypotheses testing while the next will deal with findings from interviews.

5.2 Hypotheses Testing

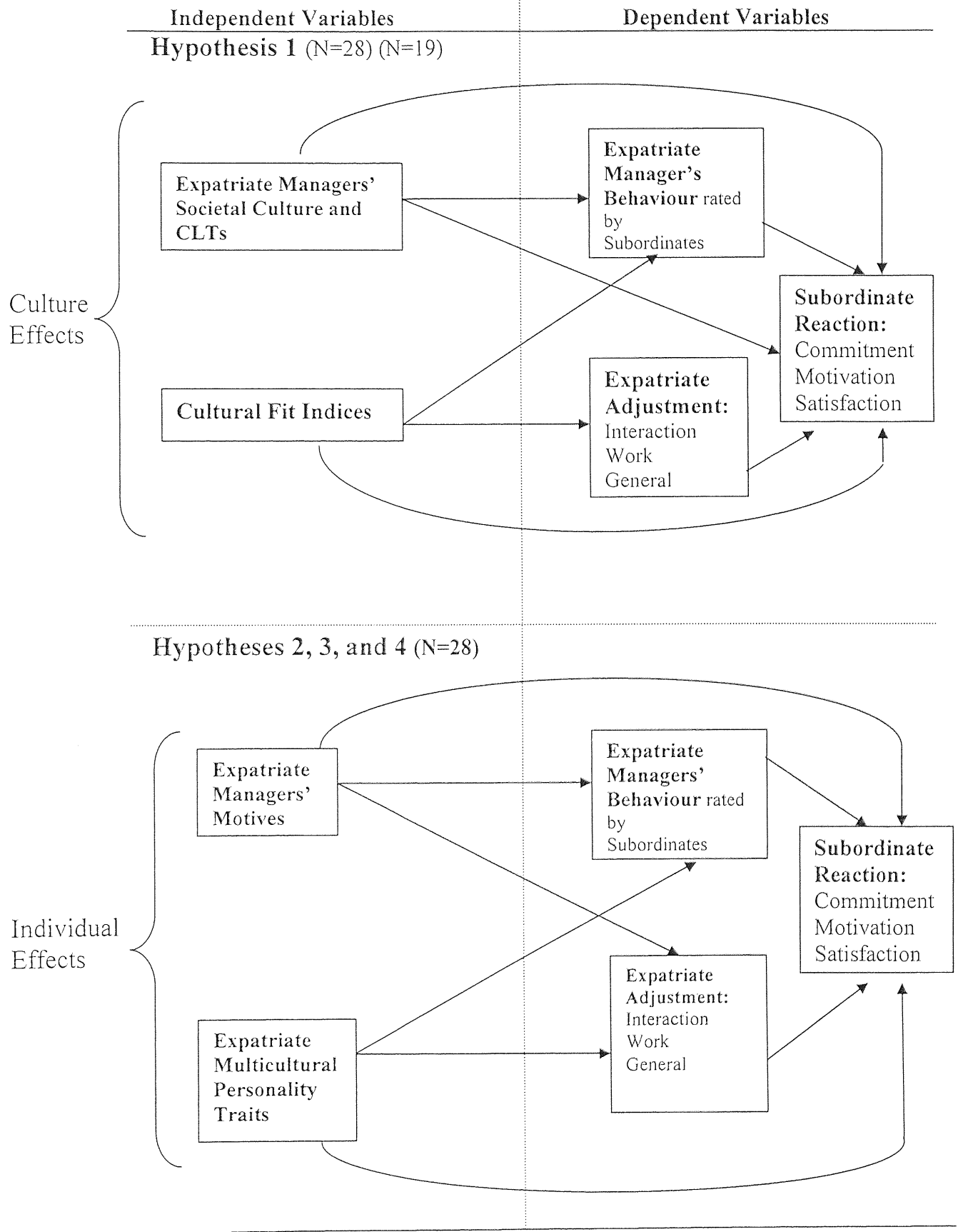
There are four main hypotheses and seventeen sub- hypotheses (Figure 3.4 Ch. 3; p. 101). Multiple and hierarchical regressions and correlations were used for hypothesis testing as shown in the sections that follow. In our hypotheses testing, we follow the model of expatriate manager's adjustment, their behaviour and subordinate reactions as explained in chapter three (pg. 86ff). Each section of the model will be used to indicate the hypotheses and variables being tested. Fig 5.1 refers to the structure of hypotheses tested. Hypothesis 1 deals with culture effects on expatriate adjustment, their behaviour and subordinate reactions while hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 deal with the individual effects namely, motives and multicultural personality traits on the same dependent variables. For Hypothesis 1 ($N = 19$) when data is analysed at the national level, the expatriates are from 19 countries, otherwise, $N = 28$.

One tailed test was used because, first, our research hypotheses state the direction of the relationship. Second, our sample size is small and third, to minimize Type II error. It is also important to note that a one tailed test has more power than a two-tailed test. In other words, while the probability of a Type I error is the same (whatever alpha level is used), the probability of Type II error is reduced (Mertler and Vannata, 2004). Hence, we are less likely to miss a statistically significant effect with a one tailed test (assuming that we have accurately predicted the direction of the effect). We will now test each main hypothesis and its sub hypotheses.

5.2.1 Hypothesis 1: Cultural Fit, Expatriate Adjustment, their Behaviour and Subordinate Reactions

Cultural fit between expatriate manager's nation and the host nation will have an impact on expatriate adjustment and subordinates' reactions. To test this and related hypotheses, we first examined the correlation analysis (Table 5.1). We then regressed cultural and CLT fit indices

Fig. 5.1: Structure for Hypotheses Testing



on expatriate adjustment and subordinate reactions to determine their predictability. Figure 5.2 shows the different sub-hypotheses. Sub hypotheses H1a, b, c and e are tested at the country level, N = 19. The following hypotheses were tested:

5.2.1.1 Hypothesis 1(a): *the greater the cultural misfit between the expatriate managers' culture and the host nation's culture, the greater the difficulty the expatriate managers will have in adjusting to the new culture.*

Figure 5.2 Hypothesis 1:
Effects of Cultural Fit Indices on Expatriate Adjustment, their Behaviour and Subordinates Reactions

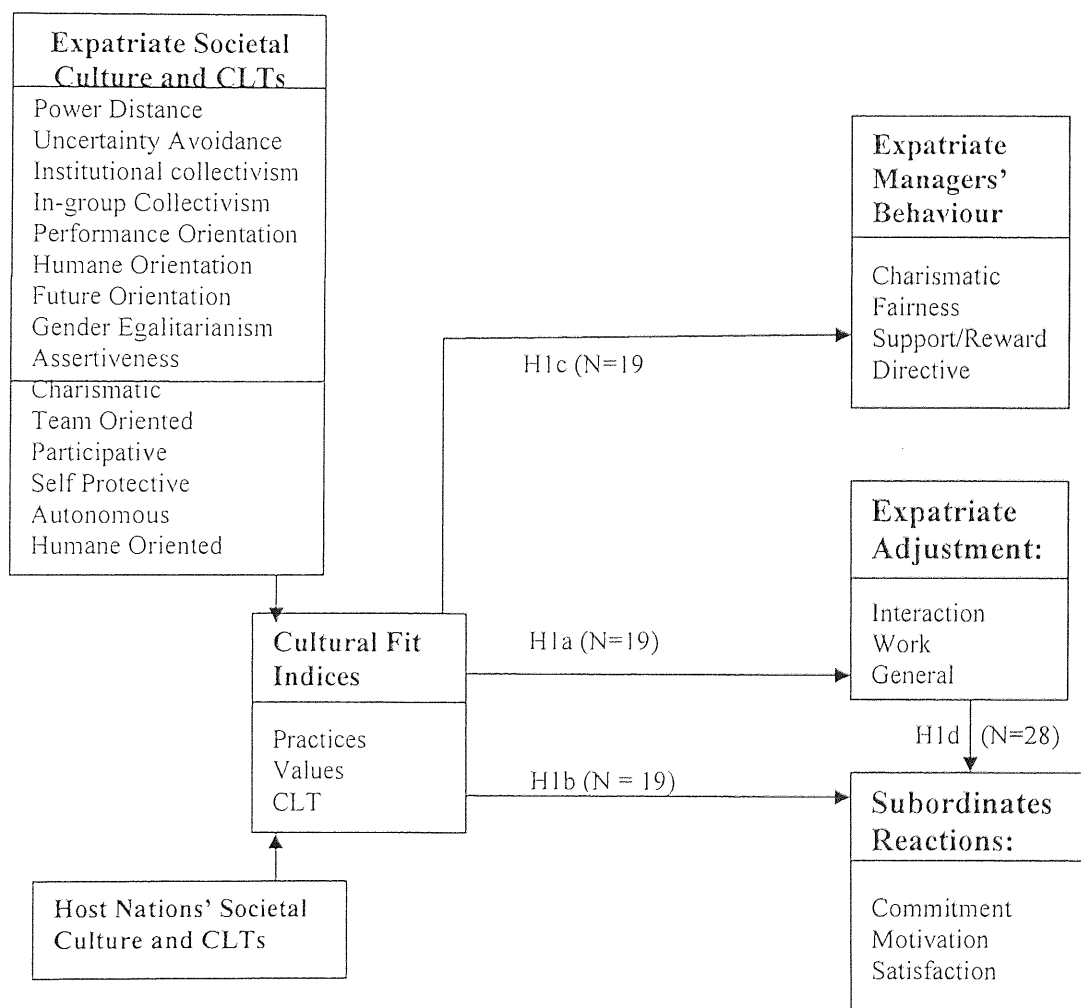


Table 5.1 (a): Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of All Variables for Hypothesis 1 “Country Level” (N = 19)

Variables	Means	Std.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
1. Adjustment	5.66	.65	1																													
2. Behaviour	4.98	.64	-.13	1																												
3. Reactions	5.44	.61	.04	.12	1																											
4. CPI	0.25	.08	.01	.37 [^]	-.16	1																										
5. CVI	0.19	.09	.06	-.21	-.41 [*]	.53	1																									
6. CLTI	0.16	.06	.12	.01	.01	.37	-.01	1																								
7. Assertiveness (As Is)	4.18	.28	.15	-.43 [*]	.15	.57	.38	.33	1																							
8. Institutional (As Is)	4.18	.23	.11	-.17	.21	-.26	.15	-.18	-.24	1																						
9. In-group (As Is)	4.71	.68	-.12	.47 [*]	-.18	-.55	-.41	-.19	-.76	-.11	1																					
10 Future Orient. (As Is)	4.02	.39	-.06	-.27	.15	.30	.57	-.03	.43	.48	-.68	1																				
11 Gender Egalit. (As Is)	3.41	.26	-.14	.13	.35 [^]	.14	-.61	.12	.00	-.03	-.15	-.14	1																			
12 Humane Orient.(As Is)	4.07	.51	.21	-.03	.05	.61	-.08	-.51	-.61	.74	.41	.00	-.19	1																		
13. Performance (As Is)	4.23	.33	.25	-.39 [*]	.24	.24	.43	.18	.59	.49	-.60	.81	-.21	.09	1																	
14. Power Dist. (As Is)	4.98	.59	-.55 ^{**}	.06	.29	-.29	.48	.16	-.10	.17	.16	-.06	.26	.06	-.02	1																
15. Uncertainty (As Is)	4.35	.54	.01	-.28	.10	.54	.57	.48	.65	.18	-.77	.81	-.10	-.41	.71	-.03	1															
16. Assertiveness (Sh Be)	3.86	.50	-.18	-.02	.00	-.48	-.20	-.47	-.37	.54	.29	.12	-.15	.73	.17	.34	-.37	1														
17. Institutional (Sh Be)	4.35	.41	.01	.22	-.06	-.02	.38	.37	-.01	.76	.44	-.73	.11	-.45	-.61	.07	-.38	-.48	1													
18. In-group (Sh Be)	5.72	.24	.17	.13	.47 [*]	-.34	.60	-.16	-.22	-.05	.22	-.44	.69	.23	-.29	.21	-.55	.14	.28	1												
19. Future Orient. (Sh Be)	5.34	.26	-.07	.33 [^]	-.22	.34	-.53	-.20	-.46	.46	.61	-.79	.16	-.12	-.73	.11	-.83	.26	.51	.52	1											
20. Gender Egalit. (Sh Be)	4.90	.23	-.11	-.33 [^]	.32 [^]	.13	.13	-.13	.27	.15	-.61	.26	.38	.03	.09	.10	.32	-.34	-.17	.16	-.36	1										
21. Humane Orient (Sh Be)	5.49	.16	.11	-.35 [^]	.19	.53	.20	.68	.70	-.04	-.70	.31	.32	.49	.49	.20	.66	-.41	.00	.01	-.39	.39	1									
22. Performance (Sh Be)	6.09	.13	-.14	.05	.45 [*]	-.09	-.33	.12	.20	-.39	-.06	-.06	.40	-.28	-.12	.32	-.03	-.19	.48	.57	.19	.34	.24	1								
23. Power Dist. (Sh Be)	2.65	.18	.14	-.47 [*]	.25	.22	.05	.31	.45	.51	-.67	.56	.15	.03	.63	.17	.50	.25	-.48	-.06	-.44	.27	.51	.06	1							
24. Uncertainty (Sh Be)	4.17	.54	-.17	.32 [^]	-.07	-.30	-.65	.00	-.45	.34	.76	-.75	.09	-.00	.61	.18	-.73	.15	.58	.30	.66	.58	-.48	.02	-.40	1						
25. Autonomous	3.73	.27	.05	-.18	.12	-.02	.23	-.10	.29	.38	-.40	.61	-.51	.07	.50	.06	.55	.12	-.52	-.55	.16	-.01	-.27	-.35	-.49	1						
26. Charismatic	5.94	.29	-.07	-.03	.12	-.41	.03	-.91	-.22	.24	.07	.16	-.19	.52	.00	-.12	-.28	.48	-.48	.13	.12	.15	-.57	-.05	-.21	-.18	.35	1				
27. Humane	4.84	.42	-.15	-.05	.07	-.48	.01	-.85	-.36	.52	.20	.22	-.13	.71	.12	.10	-.32	-.75	-.60	.08	.02	-.02	-.60	-.20	.05	-.09	.26	.82	1			
28. Self-protective	3.17	.24	-.07	.34 [^]	-.41 [*]	-.22	-.14	-.33	-.28	-.46	.55	-.37	-.46	-.03	-.46	-.18	-.48	.12	.37	-.22	.45	-.54	-.70	-.10	-.56	-.51	-.01	.21	.19	1		
29. Participative	5.60	.28	.27	-.26	.33 [^]	.07	.05	-.01	.33	.30	-.51	.21	.55	.14	.32	.16	.16	.11	-.26	.50	-.10	.54	.54	.31	.51	-.53	-.07	.06	.13	-.61	1	
30. Team Oriented	5.77	.21	-.14	-.23	-.02	-.45 [*]	-.12	-.86	-.49	-.10	.47	-.30	-.16	.43	-.47	-.20	-.66	.30	-.03	.33	.46	-.03	-.74	.07	-.64	.23	-.19	.81	.62	.39	-.17	1

^ p < 0.1; * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; Nos. 9 -17 are Cultural Practices; 18 – 27 Cultural Values; and 28 – 34 CLTS; CPI, CVI and CLTI are Cultural Fit Indices for Practices, Values and CLTs respectively

Table 5.1 (b): Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of All Variables for Hypothesis 1 "Individual Level" (N = 28)

Variables	Means	Std.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
1. Adjustment	5.66	.69	1																													
2. Behaviour	4.71	.44	-.10	1																												
3. Reactions	5.44	.62	.15	.32*	1																											
4. CPI	0.21	.08	.12	.15	-.16	1																										
5. CVI	0.19	.08	.08	-.12	-.28^	.44	1																									
6. CLTI	0.15	.06	.05	-.21	-.05	.26	-.01	1																								
7. Assertiveness (As Is)	4.20	.28	.06	.19	.13	.51	.32	.12	1																							
8. Institutional (As Is)	4.22	.24	.22	-.45**	.24	-.35	.17	-.20	-.29	1																						
9. In-group (As Is)	4.71	.62	-.03	.01	-.14	-.52	-.37	-.04	-.78	-.02	1																					
10 Future Orient. (As Is)	4.02	.35	-.02	-.12	.18	.28	.57	-.48	.43	.44	-.67	1																				
11 Gender Egalit. (As Is)	3.39	.22	-.19	.06	.22	.29	-.21	.31	.08	-.13	-.23	-.03	1																			
12 Humane Orient.(As Is)	4.16	.51	.30^	-.39*	.13	.65	-.05	-.44	-.56	.79	.40	.00	-.33	1																		
13. Performance (As Is)	4.25	.31	.27^	-.01	.29^	.13	.44	.02	.55	.51	-.57	.80	.19	.18	1																	
14. Power Dist. (As Is)	5.01	.49	-.45^	-.01	.18	-.23	.49	.17	-.15	.12	.17	-.11	.21	.05	-.1	1																
15. Uncertainty (As Is)	4.31	.46	-.00	-.01	.09	.46	.58	.46	.49	.19	-.67	.79	-.01	-.34	.63	-.01	1															
16. Assertiveness (Sh Be)	3.94	.45	-.08	-.05	.05	-.38	-.18	-.54	-.45	.43	.14	.14	-.19	.67	.26	.28	-.39	1														
17. Institutional (Sh Be)	4.71	.36	-.04	.27^	-.11	.01	-.39	.40	-.03	.74	.43	-.74	.08	-.45	-.63	.08	-.39	-.47	1													
18. In-group (Sh Be)	5.73	.20	.14	.04	.39*	-.27	.59	-.18	-.34	-.06	.17	-.40	.59	.19	-.24	.19	-.55	.17	.26	1												
19. Future Orient. (Sh Be)	5.34	.26	-.15	.20	-.25	-.17	-.53	-.09	.29	-.59	.49	-.78	.11	-.09	-.73	.15	-.77	.18	.58	.46	1											
20. Gender Egalit. (Sh Be)	4.95	.21	-.06	-.36*	.26	.06	.12	-.21	.23	.26	-.57	.28	.31	.00	.10	.10	.29	-.22	-.26	.15	-.37	1										
21. Human Orient.(Sh Be)	5.49	.14	.04	-.08	.12	.46	.17	.62	.63	-.12	-.66	.26^	.32	.47	.38	.20	.61	-.37	.04	.01	-.25	.34	1									
22. Performance (Sh Be)	6.09	.12	-.14	.32*	.33*	.03	-.30	.07	.32	-.45	-.14	-.04	.39	-.35	-.09	.25	-.06	-.11	.47	.56	.24	.24	.26	1								
23. Power Dist. (Sh Be)	2.69	.17	.11	-.07	.24	.20	.08	.05	.54	.42	-.71	.59	.15	.03	.65	.09	.40	.36	-.52	-.01	-.42	.34	.47	.02	1							
24. Uncertainty (Sh Be)	4.13	.46	-.19	.22	-.11	-.16	-.64	.07	-.39	.39	.68	-.71	.12	-.11	.63	.19	-.68	.07	.60	.28	.64	-.58	-.43	.01	-.41	1						
25. Autonomous	3.76	.24	.09	-.24^	.12	-.10	.22	-.13	.16	.47	-.31	.55	-.48	.21	.47	.08	.51	.12	-.55	-.53	-.56	.24	-.03	-.34	-.32	-.51	1					
26. Charismatic	5.98	.25	-.02	-.19	.12	-.36	.02	-.90	-.13	.26	.01	.16	-.22	.49	.07	-.10	-.30	.52	-.48	.15	.60	.21	-.54	-.05	-.06	-.22	.36	1				
27. Humane	4.90	.38	-.02	-.23	.15	-.39	.05	-.85	-.17	.54	.06	.30	-.15	.65	.29	.05	-.28	-.76	-.64	.10	-.14	.09	-.56	-.17	.16	-.19	.30	.80	1			
28. Self-protective	3.14	.20	-.10	.19	-.34*	-.09	-.14	-.25	-.16	-.51	.46	-.35	-.36	-.16	-.44	-.18	-.45	.09	.41	-.20	.47	-.56	-.63	-.01	-.49	-.53	-.09	.15	.10	1		
29. Participative	5.64	.27	.23	-.15	.30^	.03	.06	-.18	.43	.26	-.55	.25	.40	.16	.42	.09	.07	.27	-.30	.49	-.13	.52	.47	.34	.61	-.53	-.04	.16	.29	-.54	1	
30. Team Oriented	5.78	.17	-.02	-.06	-.02	-.40*	-.14	-.80	-.41	-.08	.44	-.32	-.10	.37	-.40	-.18	-.65	.30	-.00	.34	.43	-.03	-.72	.07	-.55	.21	-.18	.79	.55	.37	-.13	1

^ P < 0.1; * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01; Nos. 9-17 are Cultural Practices; 18-27 Cultural Values; and 28-34 CLTS; CPI, CVI and CLTI are Cultural Fit Indices for Practices, Values and CLTs respectively

For testing hypothesis 1 (a), (b) and (c), cultural fit indices between the host countries and the expatriate managers' country were calculated (see Ch. 4: p 152). To simplify the model, we used one measure for adjustment since its three facets are highly correlated. The three subordinate reactions were also computed to give one measure for the same reason. For consistency, the four expatriate behaviours were computed into one measure "behaviours". We then examined the correlation Table 5.1 (a) and (b) for associations between the variables in the sub hypotheses. The correlation table for expatriate adjustment, their behaviour, subordinate reactions, cultural fit indices, expatriate cultural practices, values and CLTs shows the relationships between these variables. Due to limited space, significant correlations among independent variables are in bold. Correlation analysis (Table 5.1a) shows that there is no significant relationship between cultural fit indices and expatriate adjustment. Therefore, with respect to hypothesis 1 (a), there is no sufficient evidence to accept that the greater the cultural misfit between the expatriate manager's culture and the host nation's culture the greater the difficulty the expatriate manager will have in adjusting to the new culture.

5.2.1.2 Hypothesis 1b: *the greater the cultural misfit between the expatriate managers' culture and the host nation's culture, the less positive will be subordinates' reactions in their commitment, motivation and job satisfaction.*

Fig. 5.1(a) shows the correlation between the cultural fit indices and subordinate reactions. The relationship between cultural fit index for values is significant at the 0.05 level (1 tailed) with $r = -0.41$ and $p < 0.05$. This means that the smaller the differences in the cultural fit index for values, the more positive subordinate's reactions are. Given the small sample, we decided not to run a multiple regression because it means substituting the strong general composite measure by individual measures, thereby reducing degrees of freedom (more variables) in the equation which overall reduces the power. Nevertheless, there is partial evidence to accept the hypothesis that subordinates will react more positively if there is a similarity between their cultural values and expatriate managers'. It was expected that the greater the similarity between the host and expatriate culture, the more positive the subordinates' reactions.

5.2.1.3 Hypothesis 1c: *the greater the cultural misfit between the expatriate managers' culture and the host nation's culture, the less positive expatriates' behaviour is perceived by subordinates.*

Correlation results in table 5.1(a) shows that there is a significant relationship between cultural fit index for practices and expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates at the country level, $r = .37$ and $p < 0.1$. This means that the smaller the cultural practices misfit between the expatriate managers' culture and the host nation's culture, the more positive the expatriates' behaviour as perceived by subordinates. For each of the nine cultural practice dimensions there are implications, for example, if expatriates from high and low uncertainty avoidance cultures are aware of their differences with respect to this dimension, they will more likely know what to expect from each other, and possibly be able to negotiate mutually agreeable approaches to conflict resolution, problem solving and management practices (House et al, 2004: 6).

5.2.1.4 Hypothesis 1(d): *The better expatriate managers' adjustment, the more positive are subordinates' reactions in their commitment, motivation and job satisfaction*

Table 5.1(b) shows that there is no significant relationship between expatriate adjustment and subordinate reactions. The more detailed variable by variable correlation analysis (Table 5.1c) which includes the various facets of adjustment and subordinates three psychological states shows that there is no association between facets of adjustment and subordinate reactions with the exception of work adjustment and job satisfaction which have a significant positive relationship at the 0.1 level, $r = 0.28$, $p < 0.1$. We can conclude that with respect to this hypothesis, there is partial evidence to accept the hypothesis that the better expatriate managers' work adjustment, the more positive is subordinates' job satisfaction.

Table 5.1 (c) Correlation Analysis for Expatriate Adjustment and Subordinate Reactions

	Mean	Std. D	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. General Adjustment	5.4	.91	1					
2. Work Adjustment	5.9	.61	.66***	1				
3. Interaction Adjustment	5.6	.82	.63***	.66***	1			
4. Job Satisfaction	5.3	.81	.14	.28*	.12	1		
5. Motivation	5.6	.79	-.12	.05	-.06	.68***	1	
6. Organizational Commitment	5.5	.71	.20	.23	.24	.33**	.45***	1

*** $p < 0.01$; ** $p < 0.05$; * $p < 0.1$ level (1-tailed). N = 28

Cultural Practices, Values, Leader Behaviours and Adjustment

Having found that cultural fit indices are not significantly related to expatriate adjustment or be predictive of it, we next wanted to find out whether there are direct relationships between

expatriate adjustment and cultural practices, values and leader behaviours. Correlation table 5.1(b) shows that cultural practices of humane orientation, performance orientation and power distance correlate significantly with expatriate adjustment at the $p < 0.1$ level. Power distance was negatively correlated and significant at the $p < 0.01$ level. This means that expatriates from societies with high power distance will be associated with less successful adjustment, while those from societies with high humane and performance orientations will be associated with more success in adjustment. Regarding predictability, several regressions including hierarchical regression resulted in the results summarised below for cultural practices, values and leadership dimensions.

**Table 5.2: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Cultural Practices
Predicting Expatriate Adjustment**

Variable	B	SE B	β
Cultural Practices:			
Humane Orientation	.39	.23	.29*
Performance Orientation	.40	.39	.18
Power Distance	-.17	.23	-.44**

Note: $R = .57$; $R^2 = .33$; $R^2 \text{ Adj} = .24$; $F(3, 25) = 3.94^*$ * $p < 0.1$ ** $p < 0.05$ $N = 28$

Regression analysis (Table 5.2) shows that 24% of the variance in expatriate adjustment is explained by the three cultural practices. The F-statistic is significant and therefore, the model significantly predicts expatriate adjustment. Both Humane Orientation and Power Distance are significant predictors at the $p < 0.1$ and $p < 0.05$ level respectively. Table 5.3 shows that cultural values of In-group Collectivism and Performance Orientation are significant at the $p < 0.1$ level. 7% of the variance in expatriate adjustment is explained by in-group collectivism, performance orientation and uncertainty avoidance cultural values. Although the F-statistic is not significant and the model does not significantly predict expatriate adjustment, it is important to consider that both in-group and performance orientation predict expatriate adjustment.

**Table 5.3: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Cultural Values
Predicting Expatriate Adjustment**

Variable	B	SE B	β
Cultural Values:			
In-group Collectivism	1.50	0.81	.44**
Performance Orientation	-2.30	1.36	-.39*
Uncertainty Avoidance	-.46	0.30	-.31

Note: $R = .41$; $R^2 = .17$; $R^2 \text{ Adj} = .07$; $F(3, 25) = 1.68$ * $p < 0.1$ ** $p < 0.05$ $N = 28$

Cultural Practices, Values, leader behaviours and Subordinate Reactions

Correlation analysis table 5.1(b) shows that for cultural practices, only performance orientation is positively related to subordinate reactions and is significant at the 0.1 level. Four cultural values, in-group collectivism, future orientation, gender egalitarianism, and performance orientation are positively related to subordinate reactions and are significant at the 0.1 and 0.05 levels. This indicates that expatriates who come from societies that possess these values are expected to receive positive reactions from their subordinates. Regarding leadership behaviours, participative behaviour was positively related to subordinate reactions while self-protective behaviour was negatively related to them. This indicates that when expatriates exhibit self protective behaviour they will receive negative reactions from their subordinates, while those who exhibit participative behaviour will receive positive reactions. Therefore, we conclude that some cultural practices, values and leadership dimensions are positively related to subordinates' reactions.

Table 5.4: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Cultural Values Predicting Subordinate Reactions

Variable	B	SE B	β
Cultural Values:			
In-group Collectivism	1.72	0.65	0.55***
Future Orientation	-1.30	0.43	-0.54***
Performance Orientation	0.81	1.04	0.15

Note: $R = .63$; $R^2 = .40$; $R^2 \text{ Adj} = .31$; $F(3, 25) = 5.36^{***}$ * $p < 0.1$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$ $N = 28$

Table 5.4 shows a summary of the regression analysis for cultural values predicting subordinate reactions. In-group collectivism and future orientation are predictive of subordinate reactions and the model is significant at the 0.01 level. 31% of the variance in subordinate reactions is explained by the model.

Cultural Values and Leader Behaviours

Correlation analysis table 5.1 (b) shows that for cultural practices, humane orientation and institutional collectivism are negatively related to expatriate behaviour and are significant at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels respectively. Two cultural values, institutional collectivism, and performance orientation are positively related and significant at the 0.1 and 0.05 levels while gender egalitarianism is negatively related at the 0.05 level. This indicates that expatriates who possess institutional collectivism and performance orientation values behave positively. Autonomous leadership is negatively associated with expatriate behaviours as perceived by

subordinates, $r = -0.24$, $p < 0.1$. We can therefore conclude that some cultural practices, values and leader behaviours are positively related to expatriate behaviours.

Table 5.5 shows that four cultural practice variables explain 18% of the variance in expatriate behaviours. Two of these practices, institutional collectivism and performance orientation are predictive of expatriate behaviour and are significant at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels respectively. The model is significant at the 0.1 level.

**Table 5.5: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Cultural Practices
Predicting Expatriate Behaviours**

Variable	B	SE B	β
Cultural Practices:			
Assertiveness	-1.30	0.83	- 0.53
Institutional Collectivism	- 2.63	0.92	- 0.94***
Performance Orientation	2.10	0.88	0.94**
Uncertainty Avoidance	- 0.34	0.34	-0.23

Note: $R = .55$; $R^2 = .30$; $R^2 \text{ Adj} = .18$; $F(4, 24) = 2.48^*$; $*p < 0.1$; $**p < 0.05$; $***p < 0.01$ $N = 28$

To explore the predictability of cultural values on expatriate behaviours, Table 5.6 gives the summary of the regression analysis. The model is significant and 23% of the variance in expatriate behaviours is explained by the four cultural variables. The two cultural values, gender egalitarianism and performance orientation are predictive of expatriate behaviours.

**Table 5.6: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Cultural Values
Predicting Expatriate Behaviours**

Variable	B	SE B	β
Cultural Values:			
Assertiveness	- 0.19	0.34	- 0.55
Institutional Collectivism	- 0.70	0.52	- 1.35
Gender Egalitarianism	- 2.06	0.73	- 2.80***
Performance Orientation	3.65	1.34	- 2.72***

Note: $R = .59$; $R^2 = .35$; $R^2 \text{ Adj} = .23$; $F(4, 24) = 3.05^{**}$ $*p < 0.1$; $**p < 0.05$; $***p < 0.01$; $N = 28$

Autonomous leadership was negatively associated with expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates, $r = -0.24$, $p < 0$. The remaining five CLTs did not have significant correlation with expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates.

Table 5.7: Summary of Result of Expatriates' Home Societal and Leadership Culture in Relation to Adjustment, Subordinates' Leadership Behaviour Perceptions and Reactions to Leadership Behaviour

Expatriate Adjustment	Expatriate Behaviours	Subordinate Reactions
Practices: Humane Orientation (p) Performance Power Distance (-) (p)	Humane Orientation (-) Institutional Collectivism (-)	Performance Orientation (+)
Values: In-Group (+) (p) Performance (-) (p)	Institutional Collectivism (+) Performance Orientation (+) (p) Gender Egalitarianism (-) (p)	In-group Orientation (+) (p) Future Orientation (+) (p) Performance Orientation (+) Gender egalitarianism (+)
CLTs: Participative (+) (p)	Autonomous (-)	Participative (+) Self Protective (-)

(+) and (-) indicates positive and negative correlation. (p) Indicates significantly predicts the dependent variable

Summary of Hypotheses 1

Correlation analysis was used in the testing of hypothesis 1 and its sub-hypotheses. The purpose of the multiple regressions in testing the various hypotheses was to model or group variables that best predict adjustment, expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinate reactions. The cultural fit indices were not significant predictors of expatriates' adjustment, their behaviours or subordinates' reactions. Correlation analysis using a 1-tailed test showed a negative correlation between the cultural fit index for values and subordinate reactions indicating that the greater the cultural values misfit between the expatriate managers' culture and the host nation's culture, the less favourable will be subordinates' reactions. Cultural fit index for practices and expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates were positively and significantly correlated indicating that the smaller the cultural practices misfit, the more positive the expatriates' behaviour as perceived by subordinates. Further results showed that work adjustment and job satisfaction had a significant positive relationship meaning that expatriates who were well adjusted to their work were associated with subordinates who were satisfied with their jobs.

Further analysis revealed that that some expatriate managers' cultural practices, values and leader behaviours are significantly related to expatriates' adjustment, their behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinate reactions. For cultural practices, humane and performance orientations, power distance and institutional collectivism were significant while for cultural values in-group collectivism, performance orientation, gender egalitarianism and future orientation were significant. Finally, for CLTs, participative and self protective were significantly associated with subordinate reactions, while autonomous leader behaviour was significantly related to expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates.

5.2.2 Hypothesis 2: Multicultural Personality Traits (MPT) of the Expatriate Managers

Results of hypothesis 1 led to the conclusion that apart from considering culture (at societal level) as having an effect on expatriates' adjustment, their behaviours as perceived by followers and subordinates' reactions, there maybe other factors (at the individual level) that best predict these dependent variables. It is important to note that since adjustment and subordinate reactions have three facets each, one facet may be predicted and the others not. Unless necessary, computed measures will be used as in Hypotheses 1. The second hypotheses deal with multicultural personality traits as presented in figure 5.3.

Hypothesis 2

Personality plays an important role in expatriate adjustment and managers with cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility will adjust more easily in multicultural settings (Van Der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000). To test the influence of these factors on expatriate adjustment, their behaviours and subordinate reactions, we first examine the correlation table 5.9. To test this hypothesis, other hypotheses were formulated to better understand the effects of MPT on expatriate adjustment, their behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinate reactions.

5.2.2.1 Hypothesis 2 (a): *Multicultural personality traits (cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility) are positively related to the expatriate manager's adjustment.*

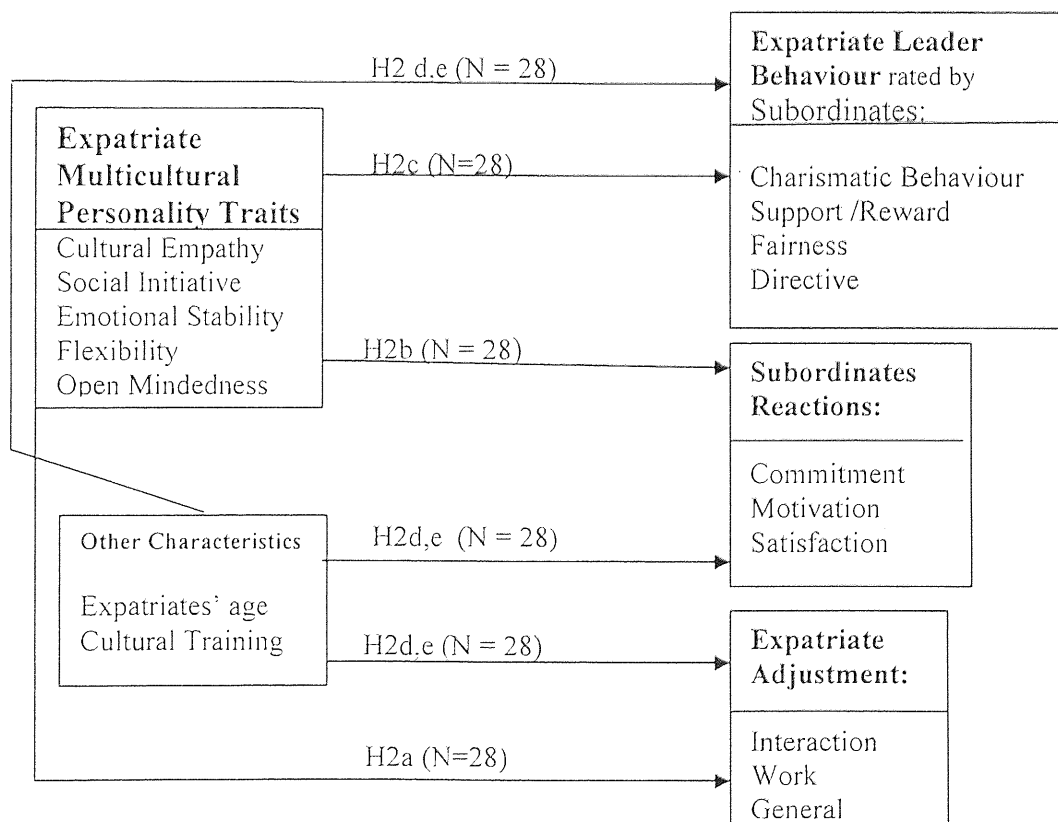
Correlation analysis (Table 5.8) indicates that there is no significant relationship at the 0.05 level (1-tailed) between multicultural personality traits and expatriate adjustment. With the exception of flexibility, which has a negative relationship with adjustment, all other relationships are positive. Since none is significant, there is no evidence that multicultural personality traits are positively related to expatriate managers' adjustment.

5.2.2.2 Hypothesis 2 (b): *Intercultural personality traits (cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility) are positively related to subordinates commitment, job satisfaction, and motivation.*

Results show some significant relationships between subordinate psychological states and multicultural personality traits. Correlation analysis (Table 5:8) indicates that cultural empathy is positively related to subordinate reactions and is significant at the 0.05 level. Social initiative and emotional stability are also positively related to subordinates' reactions and are significant at the 0.1 level. Expatriate managers who are culturally empathetic, have social initiative and are emotionally stable will generally be associated with positive subordinate reactions. This is an important finding and we partially accept the hypothesis.

Regression analysis was used to find whether the expatriate managers' multicultural personality traits predict subordinate reactions. The results indicated that cultural empathy is predictive of subordinate reactions. Therefore, for hypothesis 2 (b), only cultural empathy⁶⁰ was significant indicating that expatriate managers with the cultural empathy trait will enhance positive subordinates' reactions.

Figure 5.3: Hypothesis 2
Multicultural Personality Traits of Expatriate Managers



⁶⁰ For the three psychological states, cultural empathy was predictive of job satisfaction and motivation but not organizational commitment.

Table 5.8: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of All Variables for Hypothesis 2

Variables	Means	Std.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Adjustment	5.66	.69	1															
2. Behaviour	4.71	.44	.10	1														
3. Reactions	5.44	.62	.15	.32*	1													
4. Cultural Empathy	3.94	.36	.15	.08	.34*	1												
5. Open mindedness	3.93	.35	.21	.11	-.03	.29^	1											
6. Social Initiative	3.83	.35	.13	.07	.25^	.35	.13	1										
7. Emotional Stability	3.25	.33	.07	.08	.29^	.32*	.04	.31	1									
8. Flexibility	3.25	.44	.04	-.19	.01	.36*	.10	.23	.40	1								
9. Marital Status	1.78	.49	.21	-.15	.18	.40	.13	.07	.04	-.06	1							
10. Age	4.36	1.30	-.19	.44**	.27^	.22	-.12	-.02	.07	-.40*	.01	1						
11. Years of Service	3.04	1.10	-.00	.22	-.05	.01	-.38*	-.16	.26^	-.22	.01	.43*	1					
12. Cultural Training	1.5	.50	-.07	.10	-.23	-.05	.05	.02	.03	.37*	-.26^	-.29^	.01	1				
13. Gender	1.42	.50	.05	-.06	-.14	.05	.13	-.01	-.28^	.16	-.21	-.29^	.16	.06	1			
14. Charismatic	5.37	.59	-.15	.88**	.26^	-.03	.14	.13	.05	-.27^	-.24	.33*	.20	.03	-.15	1		
15. Fair Behaviour	4.96	.97	-.09	.76**	.24	.11	.10	.09	.20	-.43*	-.08	.24	.11	.07	-.14	.68**	1	
16. Supportive	5.21	.88	-.06	.87**	.20	.10	.15	.05	-.00	-.15	-.17	.03	.26^	.22	-.11	.82**	.59**	1
17. Directive Behaviour	4.58	1.00	-.05	.67**	.26^	.03	.00	.00	-.01	-.17	.03	.49**	.15	-.02	-.14	.14	.21	.43**

^ p < 0.1; * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; Nos. 4 - 8 are Multicultural Personality Traits; 14 - 17 Expatriate Behaviours: (N=28)

5.2.2.3 Hypothesis 2(c): *High cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility are positively related to charismatic, supportive and fair behaviour and negatively related to directive behaviour (Expatriate Behaviours).*

Correlation analysis table 5.8 shows that there is no significant relationship between multicultural personality traits and expatriate behaviours combined. But analysis of individual behaviours shows that both charismatic and fair behaviours are negatively associated with the trait flexibility and the associations are significant at the 0.1 and 0.05 respectively. For correlation between flexibility and charismatic behaviour $r = -0.27$, $p < 0.1$; and for fair behaviour $r = -.43$, $p < 0.05$. This means that expatriate managers possessing a high level of flexibility will be associated with low charismatic and fair behaviours. Since charismatic, fair and supportive behaviours are not positively related to multicultural personality traits, and directive behaviour is not negatively related in a significant way, we cannot accept hypothesis 2 (c) as regards the relationship between multicultural personality traits and expatriate behaviours. Nevertheless, we recognize the significant but negative association between flexibility with charismatic and fairness behaviour.

Apart from multicultural personality traits we tested hypotheses on age, and cross cultural training. It is expected that these will be positively associated with adjustment, expatriate behaviour as perceived by subordinates and subordinates' reactions.

5.2.2.4 Hypothesis 2 (d): *Expatriate's age is positively associated with adjustment, their behaviours and subordinate reactions in Kenya and Ethiopia*

Table 5.8 shows that age is positively related to expatriate behaviours ($r = 0.44$, $p < 0.01$) and subordinate reactions ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.1$). This means that the older the expatriate manager the better the expatriate behaviour and the more positive subordinate reactions. The relationship with expatriate adjustment is negative but not significant; therefore, there is no systematic association between age and adjustment. The older the expatriate the more difficult it will be for him/her to adjust in Kenya and Ethiopia. This could be true considering that it may be more difficult for an older expatriate to change his/her ways to adjust to a new culture. Further analysis from table 5.9 shows that it is charismatic ($r = 0.33$, $p < 0.05$) and directive ($r = 0.49$, $p < 0.01$) behaviours that are significant and positively related to expatriate's age.

5.2.2.5 Hypothesis 2e: *Cross cultural training is positively related to expatriate adjustment, leader behaviour and subordinate reactions*

Cross cultural training is positively related to expatriates' leadership behaviours as perceived by subordinates and negatively associated with expatriate adjustment and subordinate reactions (Table 5.8). All the three associations are not significant. There appears to be no systematic association between these dependent variables and cross cultural training and therefore, we reject the hypothesis that cross cultural training will be positively related to expatriate adjustment, expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinate reactions.

Summary of Hypothesis 2

Hypotheses 2 (a) to (c) depict that multicultural personality traits will have a positive impact on expatriate adjustment, behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinates reactions. These hypotheses were partly supported by the data. Multicultural personality traits were not significantly correlated with adjustment. Cultural empathy, social initiative and emotional stability were positively associated with subordinate reactions. Expatriate managers who are culturally empathetic, have social initiative and are emotionally stable will generally be associated with positive subordinate reactions. Only cultural empathy is predictive of subordinate reactions. Although there is no significant relationship between multicultural personality traits and expatriate behaviours combined, analysis of individual behaviours shows that both charismatic and fair behaviours are negatively associated with the trait flexibility and the associations are significant. Further findings reveal that age is not significantly correlated with adjustment but positively correlated with behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinate reactions. Cross cultural training is not significantly correlated with adjustment, behaviours and subordinate reactions.

5.2.3 Hypothesis 3: Expatriate Managers' Leader Motives

Expatriate managers' leader motives (achievement, affiliation, power and responsibility disposition) are the next individual level variables to be tested through hypotheses 3.

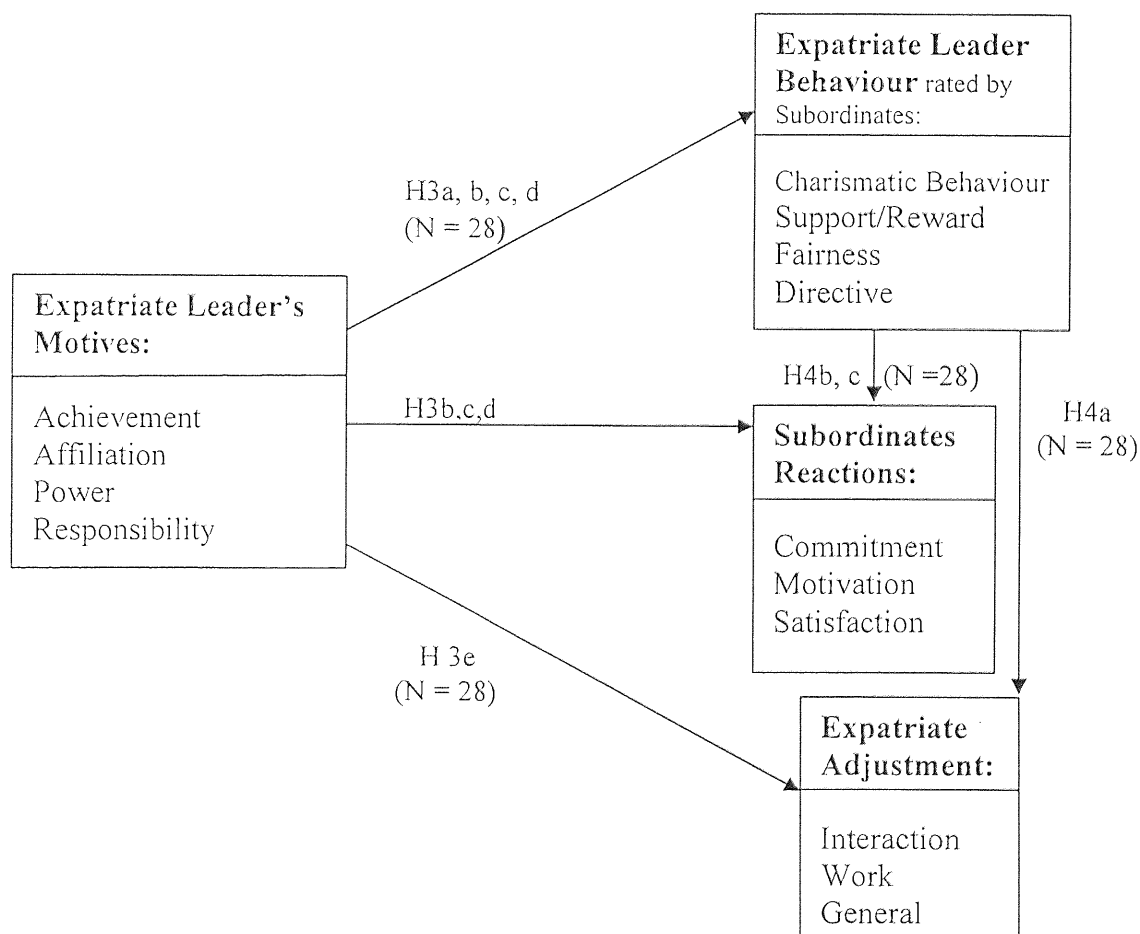
Hypothesis 3: *Expatriate managers' leader motives will have an impact on expatriate adjustment, their behaviour as perceived by subordinates and subordinates' i.e., commitment, motivation and job satisfaction (CMS).*

Several hypotheses were formulated to form hypotheses 3a to 3e (Figure 5.4). The correlation table 5.10 below shows the relationships between expatriate managers' motives and other variables. We proceed to test the following hypotheses:

5.2.3.1 Hypothesis 3(a): Expatriate managers' power motivation is positively related to directive leadership perceived by followers

Table 5.10 shows that power motivation is positively related to the exercise of directive leadership. The results are: $r = .30$, $p < 0.1$ meaning that the exercise of directive leadership will be associated with expatriate manager's power motivation in Kenya and Ethiopia. This illustrates that there is enough evidence to accept the above hypothesis.

Figure 5.4: Hypotheses 3 and 4
Expatriate Managers Motives and Behaviours



5.2.3.2 Hypothesis 3(b): Expatriate managers' responsibility motivation is positively related to charismatic leadership, leader fairness, leader supportive/reward behaviour perceived by followers (Expatriate Behaviours) and subordinates' commitment, motivation and job satisfaction (Subordinates' Reactions)

Results in table 5.9 and 5.10 show that responsibility motivation is positively related to leader fairness, $r = .35$, $p < 0.05$; and is also negatively related to charismatic leadership behaviour, $r = -.26$, $p < 0.1$. This indicates that high responsibility motivation is associated with less charismatic behaviour and more fairness behaviour. It is also negatively related to leader supportive/reward behaviour but is not significant. The results indicate that there is evidence for partial acceptance of hypothesis 3 (b).

Table 5.10: Leader Motives and leader Behaviours Perceived by Subordinates

	Behaviours	Charismatic	Fair	Supportive	Directive
Responsibility	-.15	-.26 [^]	.35*	-.18	.25 [^]
Power	.25 [^]	.11	.12	.22	.30*
Achievement	.02	.08	-.18	.15	.05
Affiliation	.06	.21	-.06	.13	-.14

[^] $P < 0.1$; * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$:

Responsibility motivation is positively related to subordinates' organizational commitment; $r = .33$, $p < 0.05$, meaning that expatriate managers with high responsibility motivation will be associated with high subordinates' commitment to the organization (Table 5.11). The results indicate that there is evidence for partial acceptance of hypothesis 3 (b).

5.2.3.3 Hypothesis 3(c): Expatriate managers' affiliative motivation is positively related to subordinates' commitment, motivation and job satisfaction (Subordinates' Reactions)

Table 5.12 shows that affiliation motivation is negatively related to subordinate reaction and the relationship is significant, $r = -.26$, $p < 0.1$. Further analysis indicates that of the subordinate reactions, only commitment is significantly related to affiliation motivation, $r = -.43$, $p < 0.05$. This means that high affiliative expatriate managers are associated with low commitment from subordinates. High affiliative motivated managers are, theoretically reluctant to monitor the behaviour of subordinates, to convey negative feedback when required, or to discipline subordinates for ethical transgressions or violations of organizational policies (House et al, 2002). Both subordinate motivation and satisfaction have a negative association with affiliation although the association is not significant. From these results we conclude that there is partial evidence to accept the hypothesis expatriates managers' affiliative motivation is negatively related to subordinate reactions.

Table 5.11: Leader Motives and Subordinates Reactions

Motives	Reactions	Commitment	Motivation	Satisfaction
Responsibility	.21	.33*	-.00	.18
Power	-.21	-.28^	-.08	-.15
Achievement	-.06	.06	-.14	-.06
Affiliation	-.26^	-.43*	-.12	-.03

^ P < 0.1; * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01;

5.2.3.4 Hypothesis 3(d): *Expatriate managers' achievement motivation is negatively related to charismatic leadership, leader fairness, leader supportiveness perceived by subordinates and subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction.*

Table 5.10 shows that achievement motivation is negatively related to fairness behaviour and positively related to charismatic and supportive leader behaviours. All these relationships are not significant at the 0.1 level and therefore, with respect to hypothesis 3 (h) there is no sufficient evidence to accept that there is a negative relationship between achievement motivation and expatriate leader behaviours. Furthermore, Table 5.11 shows that achievement motivation is negatively related to subordinate reactions; motivation and satisfaction and positively related to commitment. These relationships are not significant at the 0.1 level and therefore, with respect to hypothesis 3 (d) there is no sufficient evidence to accept that there is a negative relationship between achievement motivation and subordinates reactions.

5.2.3.5 Hypothesis 3(e): *Expatriate adjustment is negatively related to power, achievement and affiliation motivations and positively related to responsibility motivation.*

Correlation analysis Table 5.9 shows that there is negative relationship between adjustment and power motive ($r = -3.1$, $p < 0.05$) meaning that expatriate managers with low power motive will adjust more successfully. Achievement and affiliation motivations are not significantly related to adjustment but negatively related with it. Since the relationships with power motive is significant, we conclude that there is partial evidence to accept that there is a relationship between expatriate managers' leader power motive and expatriate adjustment.

Table 5.9: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of All Variables for Hypothesis 3 and 4

Variables	Means	Std.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Adjustment	5.66	.69	1															
2. Behaviours	4.71	.44	-.10	1														
3. Reactions	5.44	.62	.15	.32*	1													
4. Commitment	5.54	.71	.25^	.01	.71**	1												
5. Motivation	5.51	.79	-.06	.32*	.88**	.45*	1											
6. Job Satisfaction	5.27	.81	.20	.41*	.84**	.33*	.68**	1										
7. Responsibility (R)	3.85	.65	.01	-.15	.21	.33*	-.00	.18	1									
8. Power Motive (P)	3.71	1.01	-.31*	.25^	-.21	-.28*	-.08	-.15	-.18	1								
9. Achievement Motive	6.71	.71	-.08	.02	-.06	.06	-.14	-.06	.39*	.29^	1							
10. Affiliative Motive	2.07	1.74	-.08	.06	-.26^	-.43*	-.12	-.03	-.22	-.05	-.19	1						
11. Interaction (R & P)	14.21	4.25	-.20	.20	-.02	-.04	-.01	.00	.36**	.84**	.49**	-.17	1					
12. Leader Motive Profile	.14	.36	-.31*	.07	.20	-.00	.03	.02	.41*	.42*	.60**	-.32*	.66**	1				
13. Charismatic	5.37	.59	-.14	.88**	.27^	-.02	.32*	.32*	-.26^	.11	.08	.21	.03	.01	1			
14. Fair Behaviour	4.96	.97	-.09	.78**	.24	-.05	.34*	.27^	.35*	.12	-.18	-.06	-.05	-.17	.68**	1		
15. Supportive	5.21	.88	-.06	.87**	.20	-.18	.26^	.37*	-.18	.22	.15	.13	.17	.23	.82**	.59**	1	
16. Directive Behaviour	4.58	1.00	-.05	.67**	.26^	.19	.12	.33*	.25^	.30^	.05	-.14	.41*	.16	.41*	.21	.43*	1

^ $p < 0.1$; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; Nos. 3 - 6 are Subordinate Reactions; 7 - 12 Expatriate Motives; and 13 - 16 Expatriate Behaviours (N=28)

Summary of Hypothesis 3

Hypotheses 3 (a) to (e) hypothesize that expatriate managers' leader motives have an impact on expatriate managers adjustment, their behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction (CMS). Power motivation was positively and significantly associated with directive leader behaviour and negatively with expatriate adjustment. Responsibility motivation was negatively and significantly related to charismatic and positively associated with fair behaviour, subordinate commitment and directive behaviour. Affiliative motive is negatively associated with subordinate reactions meaning that subordinates will react less to an expatriate manager having high affiliative motivation.

5.2.4 Hypothesis 4: Expatriate Managers' Leader Behaviours

Leader behaviours are important in this study because cultures have different behaviour preferences and expatriates need to behave appropriately in order to adjust well in a new culture (House et al, 2004). Furthermore, their behaviour as perceived by subordinates will influence the way subordinates react to them and to the organization. This section tests the hypothesis:

Expatriate managers' leader behaviours are related to expatriate adjustment and subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction (CMS). Three hypotheses were formulated to form hypotheses 4. The correlation table 5.10 shows the relationships between expatriate managers' leader behaviours and other variables.

5.2.4.1 Hypothesis 4(a): *Expatriate managers' charismatic, support/reward and fair leader behaviours as perceived by followers are positively related to expatriate rating of his/her adjustment.*

The results in Table 5.9 show that leader behaviours have a negative association with expatriate adjustment but this association is not significant, $r = -.10$, $p > 0.1$. Each of the three behaviours separately is negatively related to adjustment but not significant.

Therefore, with respect to hypothesis 4 (a) there is no sufficient evidence to accept that expatriate managers' charismatic, support/reward and fair behaviours are positively related to expatriate rating of his or her adjustment.

5.2.4.2 Hypothesis 4 (b): *Expatriate managers' charismatic leader behaviour, support/reward behaviour, and fairness as perceived by followers is positively related to subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction*

Table 5.12: Leader Behaviours and Subordinates Reactions

Behaviours	Reactions	Commitment	Motivation	Satisfaction
Charismatic	.27 [^]	-.02	.32*	.32*
Fairness	.24	-.05	.34*	.27 [^]
Supportive	.20	-.18	.26 [^]	.37*
Directive	.26 [^]	.19	.12	.33*

[^] P < 0.1; * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01:

Correlation analysis table 5.9 shows that charismatic leader behaviour is positively related to subordinate reactions and is significant, $r = .27$, $p < 0.1$. This indicates that expatriate manager's enactment of charismatic behaviour is associated with positive subordinate reactions. Considering the psychological states individually, both subordinate motivation and job satisfaction are positively associated with charismatic behaviour and are significant, $r = .32$, $p < 0.05$. Organizational commitment is negatively related to charismatic behaviour but is not significant. Therefore, we conclude that there is evidence to accept the hypothesis that charismatic leader behaviour is positively related to subordinate reactions.

Results from table 5.12 show that subordinates motivation and job satisfaction are positively associated with supportive leader behaviour; $r = .26$, $p < 0.1$ for motivation and $r = .37$, $P < 0.05$ for job satisfaction. This means that an expatriate manager enacting supportive behaviour will be associated with positive subordinate motivation and job satisfaction. Subordinate commitment is negatively related and not significant at the 0.1 level. With regard to hypothesis 4 (c), there is partial evidence to accept that expatriate manager enactment of leader supportive behaviour is positively related to subordinate's motivation and job satisfaction.

Results also show that expatriate managers' perceived fairness is negatively related to subordinate commitment but positively related to motivation and job satisfaction. The positive relationship is significant, $r = .34$, $P < 0.05$ for motivation and $r = .27$, $P < 0.1$ for job satisfaction. This indicates that when subordinates perceive that there is unfairness, they will be less committed; on the other hand, expatriate managers' fairness will result in subordinate motivation, and job satisfaction. These Results are summarized in Table 5.12.

5.2.4.4 Hypothesis 4 (c): *Leader directive behaviour as perceived by followers is negatively related to subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction*

Results indicate that expatriate leader directive behaviour had a positive rather than a negative effect on subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction (Table 5.12). The overall association with subordinate reactions is positive and significant, $r = .26$, $p < 0.1$. The relationship is significant and positive with job satisfaction, $r = -.33$, $p < 0.05$ (1-tailed) and therefore, there is no evidence to accept this hypothesis (4d). Subordinates in this study may prefer a leader who is direct in his/her behaviour to avoid confusion. A directive leader offers a sense of focus and this in turn helps the subordinates to be clear about the goals of the organization, thus leading to positive subordinate reactions.

Summary of Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 (a) to (c) hypothesize that expatriate managers' leader behaviours have an impact on expatriate adjustment and subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction (CMS). Charismatic, fair and supportive leader behaviours had positive and significant relationship with subordinate satisfaction and motivation but a negative and insignificant relationship with subordinate commitment. These leader behaviours are not significantly related to expatriate adjustment.

The results of hypotheses 1 to 4 indicate that there are various variables that are related to expatriate managers' adjustment, their behaviour as perceived by subordinates and subordinate reactions. These vary from societal culture, to multicultural personality traits, expatriate leader motives and behaviours. Other variables included age and cross cultural training. The next section summarizes and discusses findings from the hypotheses.

5.3 Summary and Discussion of the Main Quantitative Findings

This section summarizes and discusses findings according to the four main hypothesis by pointing to what matters for expatriate adjustment, follower leader behaviour perceptions and followers' reactions to expatriate leaders. Is it home culture, target culture fit, multicultural personality traits, leader motives and behaviours or cross cultural training, or

age? What are the relationships between followers' perceptions of leader behaviour and follower reactions?

5.3.1 Cultural Fit and Dimensions

The first main finding indicated that cultural fit between the expatriate and host nation culture was not significant with regards to expatriate adjustment. It was expected that the less the misfit the more successful the adjustment because the cultural distance between the two countries would be minimized (Hofstede, 1980, 2002). Second, cultural fit index for practices had a positive significant correlation with expatriate behaviour as perceived by subordinates indicating that the smaller the cultural practices misfit between the expatriate managers' culture and the host nation's culture, the more positive the expatriates' behaviour as perceived by subordinates. Third, cultural fit index for values had a negative correlation with subordinates' reactions. This means that the smaller the differences in the cultural fit index for values, the more positive subordinate's reactions are.

The three findings call for an explanation as to why the cultural fit indices, the cultural distance between the host and expatriate nations correlated the way they did.

Current literature assumes a symmetric impact of cultural distance on adjustment by using it as a predictor (Kogut and Singh, 1988). The literature has rendered the direction of the flow irrelevant as Selmer et al, (2007:150) point out. For example, a US expatriate in Germany is presumed to face the same hurdle as a German expatriate in the US. Not only is there no evidence to justify the suggestion, but logic and related findings suggest the opposite (Shenkar, 2001). Selmer et al (2007) hypothesized that the impact between cultural distance and expatriate adjustment is asymmetric, that is, the impact of cultural distance is contingent on the direction of the assignment. Controlling for the length of assignment, they found that German expatriates in the USA were better adjusted, both socio-culturally and psychologically, than American expatriates in Germany. These results support the asymmetric hypothesis and call into question previous findings attesting to the relationship between cultural distance and expatriate adjustment. Our study's finding of no significant relationship between cultural fit and expatriate adjustment could be explained by the fact that the impact of cultural distance and expatriate adjustment is asymmetric.

The negative significant correlation between cultural fit index for values and subordinate reactions means that when the cultural values index is small, i.e. the cultural distance is

small, subordinate reactions will be expected to be positive. This indicates that expatriates from societies with similar cultural values as the host nation will most likely receive favourable reactions from their subordinates. The aspirations of both the expatriate and subordinate being similar will enhance their interaction and working together since cultural values reveal the cultural aspirations and the direction people want their culture to develop in the future (Javidan et al, 2002:9). As for expatriate leader behaviours as perceived by subordinates and the positive correlation with cultural practices fit index, literature shows that societal culture regulates human behaviour to a considerable extent (House et al, 2004: 51-67). Cultural norms, values and practices help identify socially acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, for example with respect to leadership (ibid, 51-67; Chhokar et al, 2007)

The fourth main finding is that a more detailed variable by variable correlation analysis which included the three facets of adjustment and subordinates' three psychological states revealed a positive association between work adjustment and job satisfaction. This is an interesting finding since it is work adjustment (but not general or interaction adjustment) that relate to subordinates' job satisfaction. Due to no common method (different respondents) this is likely to be an underestimate of true correlation (so a conservative estimate). The correlation is in the correct direction together with motivation ($r = .05$) and commitment ($r = .24$) which are however much weaker. According to the U-curve theory of adjustment, in the final stages of adjustment, expatriates are expected to cope psychologically (e.g. stress and alienation) and in work related outcomes (Black, 1988; Ayman, 1997; Selmer 2002). This success in expatriate manager work adjustment is expected to result in subordinate job satisfaction since the manager's work involves making sure that subordinates' are happy in their jobs.

The fifth finding concerns an exploration of individual cultural practices, values and leader behaviours in relation to expatriate adjustment which revealed that cultural practices of humane orientation, performance orientation and power distance correlate significantly with expatriate adjustment. Kenya and Ethiopia reported low on power distance practices. Managers in all cultures of GLOBE reported that their societies practice power distance more strongly than they believe they should (House et al, 2004, 560). Societies that value a high level of power distance expect leaders to be caring and benevolent while being conscious of status and privilege. At the same time, people in these societies do not expect the leaders to allow for participation and or be accountable for results. Leaders in such

societies are treated with such level of deference and respect that they are not expected to be performance oriented or visionary (ibid, 560). On the other hand, expatriates with cultural humane and performance orientations background appear to be perceived more positively. Humane oriented societies are closely related to the economic, physical and psychological well-being of their members (House et al, 2004: 596); while low performance oriented societies are reported to value social and family relations, loyalty, tradition, and seniority and use of subtle and indirect language (ibid, 276) . It is interesting to note that cultural practices not values correlate with adjustment. Expatriate adjustment is a process where expatriates interact with and learn about the local environment and people to reduce uncertainty and to obtain psychological comfort (Black, 1988, Wang and Kanungo, 2004). Therefore, expatriates deal with the practices of the new culture as they are not what the country nationals would like their society to be (values). That may be the reason why cultural practices not values correlate significantly with adjustment.

Dorfinan (2004) argues that cultural values, not practices are more compatible with CLTs as the later reflect desired leadership attributes. Consistent with a multilevel perspective, the GLOBE data showed that collectivism and effective leadership were not always consistent across levels (House et al, 2004: 501). Although participative leadership practices were negatively associated with effective leadership at the societal level, they were positively associated with effective leadership at the organizational level for in-group collectivism values as well as institutional values. Participative leadership was positively associated with expatriate adjustment, their behaviour and subordinate reactions. In the GLOBE study, multiple dimension HLM analysis predicted cultural value dimensions that should relate to the endorsement or non-endorsement of participative leadership (House et al, 2004:704). Participative leadership involves efforts by a leader to encourage and facilitate participation by others in making important decisions (Yukl, 2006:81). It also involves delegation and empowerment. In the same study, it was viewed favourably by respondents from all cultures but their endorsement of the participative CLT leadership dimension as contributing to effective leadership also varying considerably among cultures. Given the popularity of participative leadership in the Western and European literature, this confirms preconceived notions about these cultures (Bass, 1990). In other words, societies reporting high performance orientation and gender egalitarianism values that have a high tolerance for uncertainty will likely have participative leader attributes as part of their effective CLT leader prototype.

Limitations, Implications and Future Research

One of the methods used here makes use of self-reported data and could include effects of single method variance. Another limitation may be specific to the cultures involved. The advantage of this study is that interviews were also used and expatriate managers explained the importance of having knowledge of the host country in order to succeed in the assignment. The findings are generalizable only to the extent that cultures investigated can represent a cultural or national group. For example, if Kenya and Ethiopia were representative of other Sub-Saharan countries and the fifteen expatriate nations in the study were representative of other expatriate nations, the conclusions would be more interesting.

Regarding implications, we consider the fact that culture has a pervasive influence on the behaviour of individuals and provides the body of knowledge and techniques that enable expatriates to act (Hofstede, 1980). These findings support other findings in literature in calling for expatriate managers to be well culturally prepared before embarking on an international assignment. Such preparations will lessen expatriate failures since such knowledge will enhance adaptability. Competent expatriate managers will be needed for African countries for many years to come since humanitarian assistance offered by international NGOs is increasing. It is critical that expatriates gain a deeper understanding of how African cultures and leadership styles function. Future research can build on results from this study especially on cultural distance, cultural practices, values and leadership in relation to adjustment and their followers' reactions. Future research can focus on cross cultural leadership and what is preferred in these cultures at the culture specific level.

The discussion in this section has dealt with findings at the societal level from tests of cultural fit to exploration of and cultural dimensions in relation to adjustment, expatriate behaviour as perceived by subordinates and subordinate reactions. From the results we are confident that cultural indices have an impact on expatriate behaviour as perceived by subordinates and subordinates' reactions. In addition, work adjustment is associated with subordinates' job satisfaction. The next sections deal with findings at the individual level. These include multicultural personality traits, expatriate leader motives and leader behaviours as perceived by subordinates.

5.3.2 Multicultural Personality Traits and Other Characteristics

This study focused on the five multicultural traits that have been detected as contributing to success in intercultural settings (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000, 2001); Cultural empathy, open-mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility. Findings indicated that these traits were not significantly correlated with adjustment or expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates. Cultural empathy, social initiative and emotional stability were positively associated with subordinate reactions. This means that expatriate managers who are culturally empathetic, have social initiative and are emotionally stable will generally be associated with positive subordinate reactions. Only cultural empathy was predictive of subordinate reactions. Therefore, subordinates' reactions will be positive towards an expatriate who exhibits the ability to empathize with their (subordinates) feelings, thoughts and behaviours; have a tendency to actively approach social situations and take initiative rather than wait and see; and have a tendency to remain calm in stressful situations (Church, 1982, Armes and Ward, 1989).

Although there was no significant relationship between multicultural personality traits and expatriate behaviours combined, analysis of individual behaviours showed that both charismatic and fair behaviours were negatively associated with the trait flexibility and the associations were significant. This means that an expatriate manager who possesses charismatic and fair evaluation behaviours may have the ability to be able to switch easily from one strategy to another in intercultural situations because familiar ways of handling things may no longer work (Arthur and Bennett, 1995; Thorbiorn, 1982). A new situation will not be seen as a threat but a challenge. It was envisaged that subordinates would react favourably to expatriate managers who possess some or all of the five multicultural traits (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2001). This has been supported by our findings.

Further findings revealed that age is not significantly correlated with adjustment but positively correlated with behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinate reactions. This is supported by the fact that literature on African culture emphasizes respect for elders and authority (Beugre et al, 2001; Nzelibe, 1986, Dia, 1991; Saleh, 1985). Respect for old age is particularly emphasized by African cultures where the older the person is, the more he or she is respected (Burgre and Offodile, 2001) and is expected to behave appropriately e.g. is more understanding and supportive of subordinates. Therefore, it is likely that older expatriates will find it easier to live and work in Kenya and Ethiopia

since their suitability will be less in doubt by subordinates making it easier for them to adjust than younger expatriates. Although there was no significant evidence for this as regards adjustment, both charismatic and directive behaviours as perceived by subordinates were correlated with age. The older the expatriate manager, the more confident he or she is expected to be and her/his authority is less questioned. Subordinates may react more positively to older expatriates out of respect and because of their authority.

Limitations, Implications and Future Research

One might argue that we have obscured specific trait-leadership links by lumping the five multicultural personality traits for our study. Are these the most relevant for studying other cultures? Although the five traits have evidence in literature for enhancing intercultural success, they were not associated with adjustment. Cultural empathy, social initiative and emotional stability were associated with subordinate reactions implying that organizations should consider these traits in the selection process of expatriate candidates. Personality cannot be changed easily through training and therefore, careful selections are necessary especially for expatriates to Kenya and Ethiopia. Future research could try to replicate and extend the focus of this study in order to test the validity of results. Furthermore, other personal characteristics regarded as important in these cultures could be included in future research. We next discuss findings from expatriate leader motives' relationship with adjustment, expatriate behaviour and subordinate reactions.

5.3.3 Expatriate Motives

Expatriate managers' leader motives were expected to have an impact on expatriate managers' adjustment, their behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction. The first main finding with regard to motives was that power motivation was positively and significantly associated with directive leader behaviour and negatively with expatriate adjustment. According to leader motivation theory high power oriented individuals are non-consciously motivated to acquire and exercise social influence. They are also strongly concerned about making an emotional impact on others, influencing the behaviour of others, and attaining reputation and status (Winter, 1991). Our findings support this theory because expatriate managers with high power motivation exercise personalized leadership which is based on personal dominance and authoritative behaviour and serves the self interest of the leader and is self-aggrandizing as

well as exploitation of others (Fodor and Smith, 1982). They are also more assertive and directive, less cooperative and more deceitful (Terhune, 1968a, 1968b) and evaluate others as more negative (Watson, 1974). De Hoogh et al (2005) found in their research that as expected, charismatic leadership was positively related to subordinates' positive work attitude. Perceived charismatic leadership was also positively related to coded power motivation. They also found that the tendency to use power in a morally responsible way was differentially related to charismatic leadership for CEOs of profit and voluntary organizations.

The second main findings was that responsibility motivation was negatively and significantly related to charismatic behaviour and positively associated with fair behaviour, subordinate commitment and directive behaviour. The responsibility disposition is conceived as a strong tendency toward the moral use of power (Winter and Barenbaum, 1985). Expatriate managers who have a high non-conscious responsibility disposition are also collectively and socially oriented, personally controlled and non-impulsive (McClelland, 1975, Winter, 1991). These managers will be expected to have non-conscious concern for ethical, moral, and trustworthy leader behaviour, to behave in a manner that is consistent with this concern, and to be perceived accordingly by subordinates. The findings of Judge and Picollo, (2004) are relevant here. They found that for leaders low on responsibility; they were rated less charismatic in voluntary and more charismatic in profit organizations. They also point out that ideology is central to voluntary organizations. Leaders who are high on power motivation and have a high concern for responsibility seem to fit this context well. Engaging in morally responsible action, emphasizing ideological values, and behaving in ways that reinforce the values inherent in the mission seem especially important for the attribution of charisma to leaders in this ideologically driven context (ibid, 15).

The third finding was that affiliative motive was negatively associated with subordinate reactions meaning that subordinates will react less to an expatriate manager having high affiliative motivation. This is explained by the fact that highly affiliative motivated managers are, theoretically, reluctant to monitor the behaviour of subordinates, to convey negative feedback to subordinates when required, to discipline them for violations of organizational policies (Winter, 1991). This may cause subordinates to resent the manager for lack of forceful actions and tough decisions. The findings of Thomas, Dickson and Bliese (2001) may be relevant here. They interpret their results by arguing that a high

affiliation motive might be beneficial for initial leadership success. Over the long term, however, effective leaders may be those that make and implement decisions that require a low affiliation motivation.

Fourthly, contrary to expectations and results of previous research on US presidents (House et al, 1991), in this study there was no significant relationship between achievement motivation and expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates. As Judge and Picollo, (2004), point out, it appears that a high achievement motivation may be as much a liability as an asset for managers in organizations.

Limitations, Implications and Future Research

Although adapted for expatriate managers, interview questions were meant for CEOs. The interviews were intended to elicit executives' dominant concerns, beliefs, values, opinions and philosophy of management. They were coded for motive imagery (power, affiliation, achievement and responsibility). The implication of findings in this study is that they are an evidence for motivation theory and prove that motives are associated with adjustment, expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinates reactions. Future research could replicate this study and modify interview questions that will express the affiliative motive more strongly. Our next discussion covers the final individual level variables in the analysis, namely, expatriate leader behaviours as perceived by subordinates and their relationship with adjustment and subordinate reactions.

5.3.4 Leader Behaviours

First, expatriate managers' leader behaviours as perceived by subordinates; charismatic, fair and supportive leader behaviours had positive and significant relationship with subordinate satisfaction and motivation but a negative and insignificant relationship with subordinate commitment. These leader behaviours are not significantly related to expatriate adjustment. It is important to note that these expatriate behaviours were rated by subordinates as they perceived them and therefore, reacted to these behaviours either positively or negatively. Results may have been different had the expatriate managers rated themselves.

House et al (1999) give evidence of charismatic leadership and its influence on organizational executive behaviour. As previously mentioned, expatriate managers who possess charismatic, support/reward and fair behaviours are expected to be visionary,

inspirational, considerate and fair in their dealings with subordinates (House et al, 2002) and this may facilitate successful adjustment. These behaviours perceived by subordinates will most probably receive positive reactions from them since they are attributes to effective leadership (House et al, 2004:45).

According to a recent version of Path-Goal Theory of leadership, (House, 1996), leaders who administer rewards contingent on performance in a fair manner will clarify expectancies of subordinates concerning work goals and rewards, and will effectively motivate subordinates. Leader consideration towards subordinates is also asserted to provide psychological support for subordinates (House et al, 2002). Regarding participative and directive leader behaviour, the Path-goal theory suggests that either of these behaviours can provide psychological structure and direction and therefore clarify subordinates' role demands. Theoretically, directive leader behaviour will be dysfunctional and participative leader behaviour will be functional when subordinates are highly involved in their work, perceive themselves as having a high level of task related knowledge and, and/or prefer a high level of autonomy (House et al, 2002; 1). Meta analysis of 13 relationships tested in prior studies provides support for these assertions (Wofford and Liska, 1993). Consistent with a recent version of Path-Goal theory (House, 1996), leader directive behaviour is expected to have a negative effect on subordinates. These immediate subordinates are expected to be relatively confident, perceive themselves as having the ability to contribute to organizational objectives, be involved in their work and prefer a high level of autonomy in performing their functions (De Hoogh e al, 2005).

Second, we considered fairness in evaluation behaviour. According to Adams (1963), equity theory asserts that when individuals perceive the ratio of their contribution to their rewards (intrinsic or extrinsic) to be unequal to the ratio of contributions to rewards of others, they will believe that they are treated unfairly. It is expected that under conditions of perceived unfairness subordinates will feel resentment, be de-motivated, will not support and may even resist attempts by leaders to influence them.

Limitations, Implications and Future Research

The data describing managers' behaviours and subordinate responses to leader behaviour(CMS) were obtained through a single questionnaire completed by at least two subordinates reporting to each manager. The more the subordinates we have reporting the

less bias the results. To control for common source bias, we employed the criss-cross method. The criss-cross procedure introduces a strong conservative bias into the research design. Findings on expatriate behaviour and subordinates reactions will help both expatriates and subordinate to modify their behaviours in accordance to the cultural context. Future research should consider expatriate managers rating their own behaviours and this could be compared to subordinates rating. Expatriates' own perception of their behaviour might have implication on why they behave the way they do in relation to certain cultures.

In conclusion, we have discussed findings according to the four hypotheses by pointing to what matters for expatriate adjustment, follower leader behaviour perceptions and follower's reactions to expatriate leaders. We found that cultural fit indices for practices and values are associated with expatriate behaviours and subordinate reactions, respectively. Cultural empathy, social initiative and emotional stability were correlated with subordinate reactions. As for motives, power, responsibility and affiliative motives were associated with adjustment, behaviours and subordinate reactions, while expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates were correlated with subordinate reactions. What follows is a summary of this chapter.

5.4 Chapter Summary

The findings of hypotheses 1 to 4 indicate that there are various variables that are related to expatriate managers' adjustment, their behaviour as perceived by subordinates and subordinate reactions. These vary from cultural fit indices, to multicultural personality traits, expatriate leader motives and behaviours. Other variables included age and cross cultural training.

At the country level, findings indicated that cultural fit indices between the expatriate and host nation culture were not significant with regard to expatriate adjustment, but cultural fit index for practices had a positive significant correlation with expatriate behaviour as perceived by subordinates. Furthermore, cultural fit index for values had a negative correlation with subordinates' reactions. Regarding cultural practices, values and leadership behaviours some had impact such as; performance orientation, institutional and in-group collectives, human orientation and participative leadership dimension.

At the individual level, findings indicated that multicultural personality traits were not significantly correlated with adjustment or expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates. Yet, cultural empathy, social initiative and emotional stability were positively associated with subordinate reactions. Findings with regard to motives were that power motivation was positively and significantly associated with directive leader behaviour and negatively with expatriate adjustment. Responsibility motivation was negatively and significantly related to charismatic behaviour and positively associated with fair behaviour, subordinate commitment and directive behaviour. Affiliative motivation was negatively associated with subordinate reactions meaning that subordinates will react less to an expatriate manager having high affiliative motivation. Finally, expatriate managers' leader behaviours as perceived by subordinates; charismatic, fair and supportive leader behaviours had positive and significant relationship with subordinate satisfaction and motivation but a negative and insignificant relationship with subordinate commitment.

The next chapter will deal with the qualitative findings from interviews with expatriate managers in Kenya and Ethiopia. The interviews offered information on determinants of expatriate adjustment, motives and experience.

Chapter Six

Interview Findings

This chapter deals with qualitative analysis and results focusing on the analysis of responses from expatriate managers. The results are described in terms of the adjusted research questions covering the major themes of: adjustment, knowledge, experience, motives and personality. This is followed by detailed discussions of open questions which include the sub themes or subcategories derived from interviews. These sub categories are related to the main themes and help answer the research questions. The chapter then gives conclusions of qualitative findings in terms of research aims and questions. Finally, it offers a summary of the findings.

Introduction

Analysis on the coded transcripts focused on the themes in the research in order to refine their interpretation. Findings are from two parts of the interviews, first on the expatriate manager's adjustment and second on experience. The main themes emerge as: adjustment, knowledge (including cross cultural training), experience (work and general), motives, and personality. From these emerged sub themes that clarified our understanding of expatriate adjustment in Kenya and Ethiopia.

The interviews were meant to provide a deeper understanding of the twenty eight expatriate managers' adjustment, motives and experience. The interview questions were derived from research questions and themes in the literature on expatriate adjustment such as; expectations, fear, acceptance reasons, pre-assignment knowledge, post residency understanding, success, difficulties, cross cultural training, spouse's role, effects of age and nationality and subordinates' reactions. Although there is sufficient literature on these themes from research in other parts of the world, none known so far has been carried out in Eastern Africa. Analysis of the responses of the expatriate managers contributes knowledge not only to expatriation, but to Human Resource Management for overseas assignments. To facilitate analysis and later discussion of the themes, a profile of the respondents is appropriate.

6.1 Results

6.1.1 Profile of Respondents

The respondents were expatriate managers working for non government organizations in Kenya and Ethiopia. They were asked about their level of education, previous profession before the current position, current job title and years worked in a leadership position. Regarding their level of education, five had PhDs, twenty held masters' degrees, three had bachelors' degrees and one had technical training. Their former careers included nursing, development worker, technician, journalist, teacher, lecturer, consultant engineer, lawyer, judge, and UN worker. They had all held positions of leadership before ranging from one year experience to fifty years. The job titles currently held are programme managers, project managers, regional directors, country directors, and deputy regional or country directors. Although some had not had specific cross cultural training, their subject of specialization at

the university had been informative e.g. Third World Development, Development Studies, African Studies, Political and International Relations. This is a brief background of the respondents and more will be revealed in the analysis.

6.1.2 Initial Analysis

Qualitative data analysis is an ongoing and interactive process as data is collected and analysed (Bauer, 2000). To enrich the data, the researcher recorded reflective notes about what was learnt from the data and wrote memos from ideas and insights (Bryman, 2001). Data was first transcribed then coded and categories developed. Before coding commenced, the interviewer read through all the transcripts and familiarized himself with the data. The data was then divided into meaningful analytical units, (i.e. segmenting the data). These segments were marked with symbols, descriptive words and categorical names. A master coding sheet containing coding titles, variable descriptions and example text pages was created to guide the process (see Appendix VI A: Master Coding Sheet).

The categories and sub-categories were derived from the data with a focus on the modified research questions given above. These were validated and approved by a second coder. The coding was discussed with colleagues (King, 1994). The coding scheme was developed and tested through discussions with several colleagues (in Organizational Psychology and Human Resources Management Groups). This scheme was used on three transcripts which were coded by the researcher and an MBA student. Differences in coding and interpretation were also discussed resulting in slight revisions to the coding scheme. As for motive coding, three coders (the researcher, a master's student and a research fellow at Aston Business School) were involved and results were discussed and the interrater reliability was greater than 80%. An example of coded interview transcript for responsibility motivation is presented in Appendix VI D.

6.1.3 Coding

In defining what the data is all about, a coding system was used. As is suggested in grounded theory, codes were created as the data was studied. The three kinds of data coding described by Strauss (1987) were used. First, the researcher started open coding which involved locating themes and assigning initial codes or labels. The preliminary concepts were entered into the NVIVO program while being open to creating new sub- themes and changing the initial codes in subsequent analysis. Although Miles and Huberman (1994:58)

suggest that a researcher begins with a list of concepts which was done in this case, other themes were generated while reading the data. The initial list helped the researcher see the emerging themes at a glance and build a universe of sub-themes in the study. These were sorted, combined, others discarded and some extended for future analysis. The degree of detail depended on the research question and the richness of the data.

Secondly, the researcher used axial coding which meant that the initial codes and preliminary concepts were organized. These codes were reviewed and examined and the axis of key concepts in the analysis was identified. The main themes were adjustment, knowledge, training, experience, motives and personality. The researcher then looked for categories that cluster together and divided existing concepts into sub-categories. Therefore, this stage of axial coding stimulated thinking about linkages between the themes that raised new questions. Some themes were dropped and others examined at depth, for example, cross cultural training was included in the knowledge theme as part of pre assignment training. This process reinforced the connections between evidence and concepts (Thomas, 2003). Evidence was found in many places in the transcripts for core themes and their sub categories.

Thirdly, selective coding was used to go through the data for the third time identifying the main themes (Miles and Hubermann, 1998). This involved scanning data and previous codes, looking selectively for cases that illustrate themes and make comparisons and contrasts. The major themes guided the search in organizing the overall analysis around several core generalizations or ideas. Specific themes identified in earlier coding were recognized and other themes were elaborated.

The next section deals with findings and explains the themes and sub themes in terms of the research questions. Extracts from the interviews are used as evidence to enforce findings.

6.2 Initial Findings

This section delineates the themes and their sub-themes as found in the data and gives descriptions that are illustrated by diagrams. All themes in the diagram are supported by the data. As mentioned earlier the main themes are: adjustment, knowledge, experience, motives and personality.

6.2.1 Adjustment

Adjustment is a multidimensional concept related to socio cultural and psychological aspects (Black et al, 1995). The facets which include work, interaction and general living are part of these dimensions. The model in figure 6.1 depicts that psychological and socio-cultural and their subcategories are predictors of adjustment. The success of interaction and work adjustment depends not only on the expatriate manager's competencies and skills, but also on organizational (both parent organization and local unit including subordinates) support and assistance prior to and during the assignment (Aycan, 1997). The organizational strategies (e.g. for change), its strengths and deficiencies and the reactions of subordinates indicate to the expatriates whether they are on the right path. How they adjust psychologically depends on whether they made realistic expectations, i.e. had the ability to predict how they are expected to behave, and whether they got solutions to their fears (Selmer, 2004). This study offers various ways in which the expatriate managers tackled this and gives suggestions for solutions. Important too in the adjustment process are the reasons for accepting the assignment. This can affect attitudes towards the host country and the organization. Therefore, some knowledge of the host country is necessary.

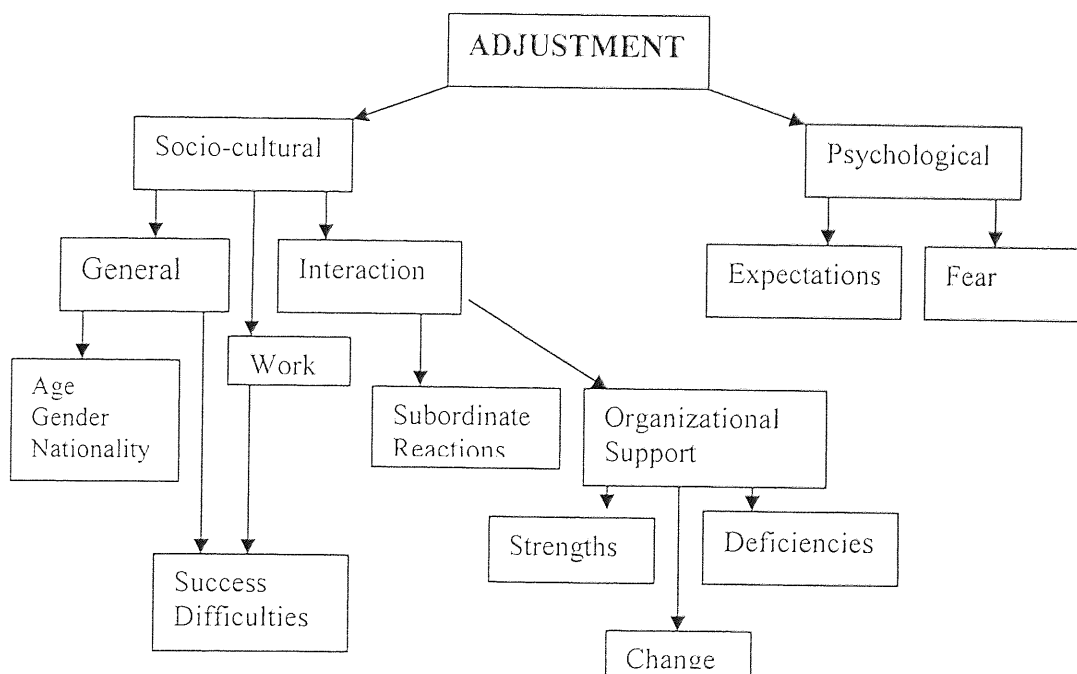


Figure 6.1: The Subcategories of the Theme "Adjustment"

6.2.2 Knowledge

This includes knowledge of both the parent and host nation cultures prior to and during the assignment. This could be knowledge about the general way of life in a country, preferences of the people, cultural customs and traditions, management styles etc. Whatever knowledge is attained during the assignment could prove useful to the organization and the expatriate in later foreign assignment as is evidenced by some of the expatriates who were interviewed. Their advice to new expatriates and their philosophies on management are discussed. In addition to knowledge, experience on former assignments and careers is an added asset in foreign assignments.

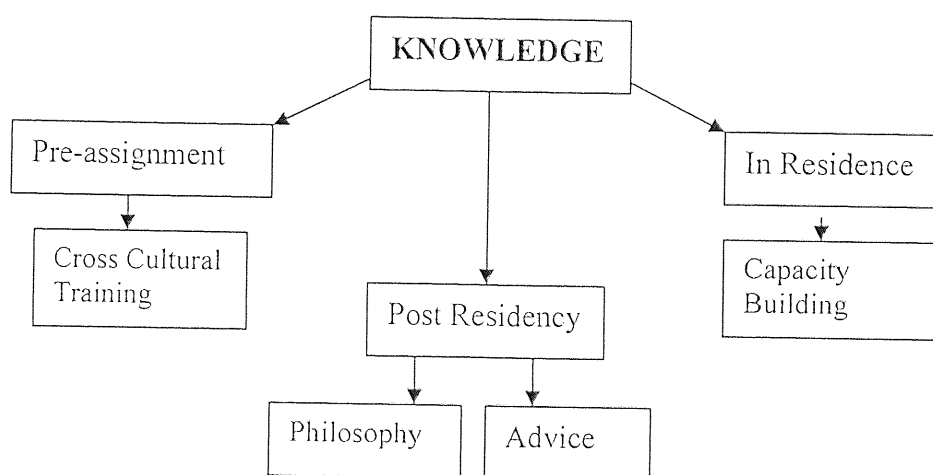


Figure 6.2: The Subcategories of the Theme "Knowledge"

6.2.3 Experience

When the expatriate managers are assigned to mission abroad, they may have experience from other assignments or from previous careers. They maybe asked to head an NGO in Addis Ababa or Nairobi but do not have training in management or leadership. The demands and nature of the assignment will require employment of earlier experiences be it in hospital supervision, teaching, social work or any other profession. Furthermore, the level of education is relevant here, whether one is skilled in some field or not.

Profession in this case included nurses, development workers, journalists, consultants, lecturer, engineers, lawyers, judges and medical doctors. Management position consist of programme managers, project managers, regional directors (for Eastern Africa), and country directors (Kenya and Ethiopia). Their work experience depended on how long they had worked in a leadership or management position.

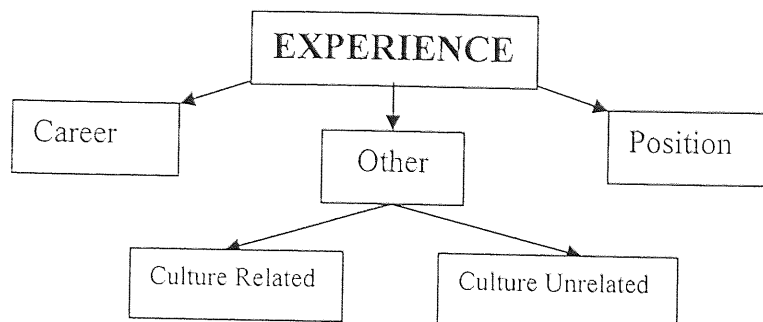


Figure 7.3: The Subcategories of the Theme “Experience”

6.2.4 Motives

The motive relevant information was gathered from expatriate managers as earlier stated. The interviews were recorded for motive imagery (power, affiliation, achievement) using the Winter and Healy (1982) motive scoring system, as well as expressions of responsibility using the Winter (1992) responsibility coding system. The coders exceeded 80% agreement with expert practice coding materials.

The Achievement Motive was indicated by the expatriate wanting to perform or do something better, or caring about performing better (Winter and Healy, 1982). The Affiliation Motive was indicated by the expatriate manager wanting to be with someone else and enjoy mutual friendship, but not merely wanting to do something for another. The Power Motive was indicated by the expatriate desiring to have impact, make an impression, on others or another outside the organization (Winter and Healy, 1982). The Responsibility Motive consists of five categories: moral-legal standard of conduct, internal obligation, concern for others, concern about consequences, and self judgment (Winter and Healy, 1982). Therefore, the responsibility motive is indicated by the expatriate using his/her powers or abilities for the good of others or the good of a cause. According to leader motive profile (LMP) theory (McClelland, 1973), the combination of high motivation, high responsibility motivation, and power motivation greater than affiliation motivation is predictive of effective socialized leadership. This theory is supported by two long term studies (Winter, 1978, 1991). Connected with motives are expatriates’ personality traits suitable for cultural interaction.

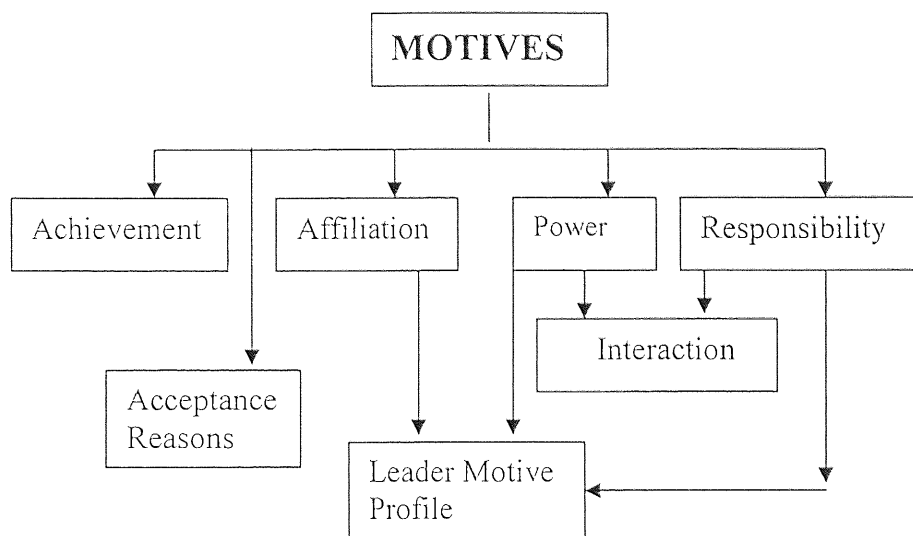


Figure 6.4: The Subcategories of Theme “Motive”

6.2.5 Personality

Expatriate managers expressed their personality traits and how these were a help or hindrance in accomplishing their assignment. They also expressed what they thought to be good leadership traits in a multi cultural or cross cultural context and those that would hinder such leadership. Detailed discussions of the findings are explained later in the chapter.

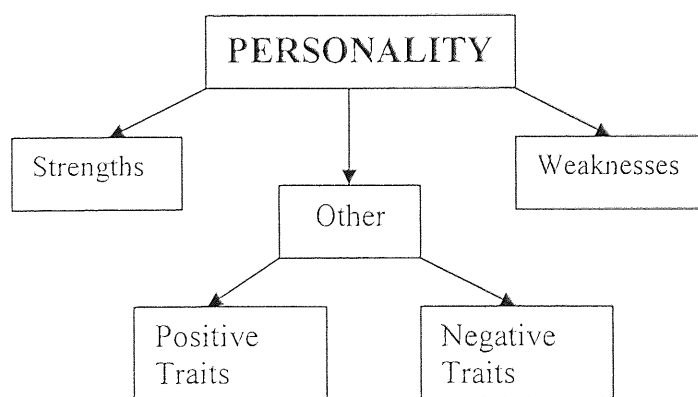


Figure 6.5: The Subcategories of the theme “Personality”

Summary of Initial Results

These initial results can be divided into five themes: adjustment, knowledge, experience, motives and personality in connection with the research questions. The data was further clarified by the sub-themes as the diagrams depict. In addition to these, subcategories are supported by evidence; any other material that does not fall into these subcategories was explained separately. Nevertheless, the researcher's main concern was the themes and subcategories in explaining expatriate managers' adjustment, motives and subordinate reactions. In general, the categories are well supported indicating that they represent an appropriate and comprehensive coding system. A detailed discussion of subcategories is given in the next section.

6.3 Results and Discussion from Open Questions

This section will discuss findings from the five themes of expatriate adjustment which partly includes subordinate reactions. As mentioned earlier the themes are derived from the modified research questions. To illustrate certain categories with examples, some text passages from the expatriate managers are provided. What follows is a discussion of themes and their sub-themes.

6.3.1 Adjustment

Adjustment is the degree of fit between the expatriate and the environment. It is a multidimensional phenomenon with psychological and socio-cultural dimensions (Selmer, 2004). The psychological dimensions consist of expectations, fear, and reasons for accepting the assignment. The socio-cultural dimension consists of successes and difficulties at work, subordinate reactions in interaction with expatriate managers, organizational support in the assignment and general factors such as age, gender and nationality.

The main subcategories are explained with examples.

6.3.1.1 Expectations

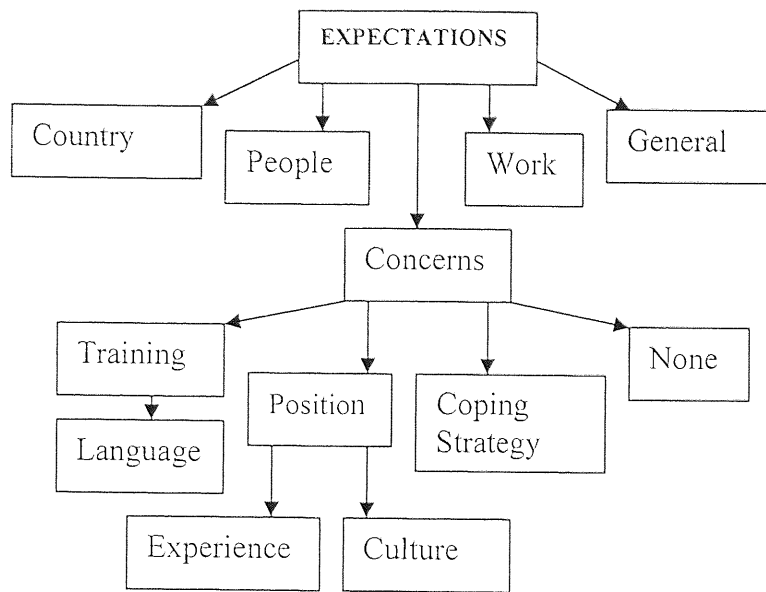


Figure 6.6: Subcategory "Expectations"

Expectations are what the expatriate managers anticipated to encounter in the host country. This included expectations about work, people, country and general living. It covered how they felt about working in this country, their attitude towards the people, whether the country was friendly (e.g. climate, diseases), and life in general (especially social facilities, security, friendly environment to implement programs). The expatriate managers identified the following concerns:

- (i) *Training*; this is whether their previous career was appropriate for leadership/management role and if past training did fit the job. One expressed it by saying "*I am not a trained manager, but I will learn on the job*"
- (ii) *New Position (leadership)*: The demands of the job may be lower or higher than expectations. Having the responsibility of planning, coordinating and implementing the organizations' projects can cause some anxiety in any manager in a new country.
- (iii) *Years of Experience*: Whether previous work experience would be related to leadership/management expectations.
- (iv) *Culture (familiarity with culture)*: There are many subcultures in the country, whether it will be possible to understand the heterogeneous society.
- (v) *Language*: Whether one will be understood and vice versa, be it in English or the native language. Knowing the language does not mean that one will be understood. There are nuances in a language that only a native speaker knows.

- (vi) *Coping Strategy*: How to cope with culture shock, capacity of staff and the environment. Although it is good to take initiative, it should be slow because the expatriate manager needs the experience of the local staff.

These concerns reflected not only their expectations but fear of the unknown. Some had positive expectations as this example shows:

"My expectation; I try to keep an open mind and try to be receptive to whatever the environment has to offer physically or socially, and try to follow it to the degree I can".

For others, their expectations were met as is expressed in this extract:

"On the part of the country (Ethiopia), I had read quite a bit about the history and culture and that was one of the motivations to come here. I thought it was a very fascinating country from a cultural standpoint and also natural perspective. And largely that met my expectation".

Yet for another:

"To some people Ethiopians may look the same, at least the highlanders, then there are different groups within and even divisions within groups. Here it takes along time to adjust, even a lifetime. If I was to stay here a lifetime, it would take a lifetime".

These examples express some of the concerns and difficulties in adjusting to certain cultures, but accurate expectations are helpful. As adjustment theorists (Ashford and Taylor, 1990, Brett, 1980, Louis, 1988) have argued, accurate expectations will in general facilitate adjustment to the actual circumstances. This is because accurate expectations reduce the chance of "surprises" and their associated uncertainty. Therefore, we would expect that accurate work expectations would have their most positive relationship with in-country work; accurate interaction expectations with in-country interaction adjustment and accurate general expectations to have positive relationship with general environment adjustment.

Met expectations theory in cross cultural adjustment presupposes that the expatriate manager is already at the assignment. Various stage models of organizational socialization (Feldman, 1976, Porter et al, 1995, Wanous, 1980, 1992) all assume that unmet expectations cause a variety of post entry adjustment problems. A Meta-analysis by Wanous et al, (1992) found that met expectations are related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intent to remain, job performance and job survival than unmet expectations. In the case of expatriates in particular, Black (1992) found that accurate expectations were related to higher levels of repatriation adjustment and job performance compared to inaccurate expectations.

Finally, there are those expatriate managers who indicated that they had no real expectations. They expressed that they did not know what to expect although they had worked there before and knew the culture. The varied responses showed that a foreign assignment is a mission to the unknown, the expectation may be met or they may be off the mark. Despite that, there is a sense of fear of the unknown, and that is our next subcategory.

6.3.1.2 Fear

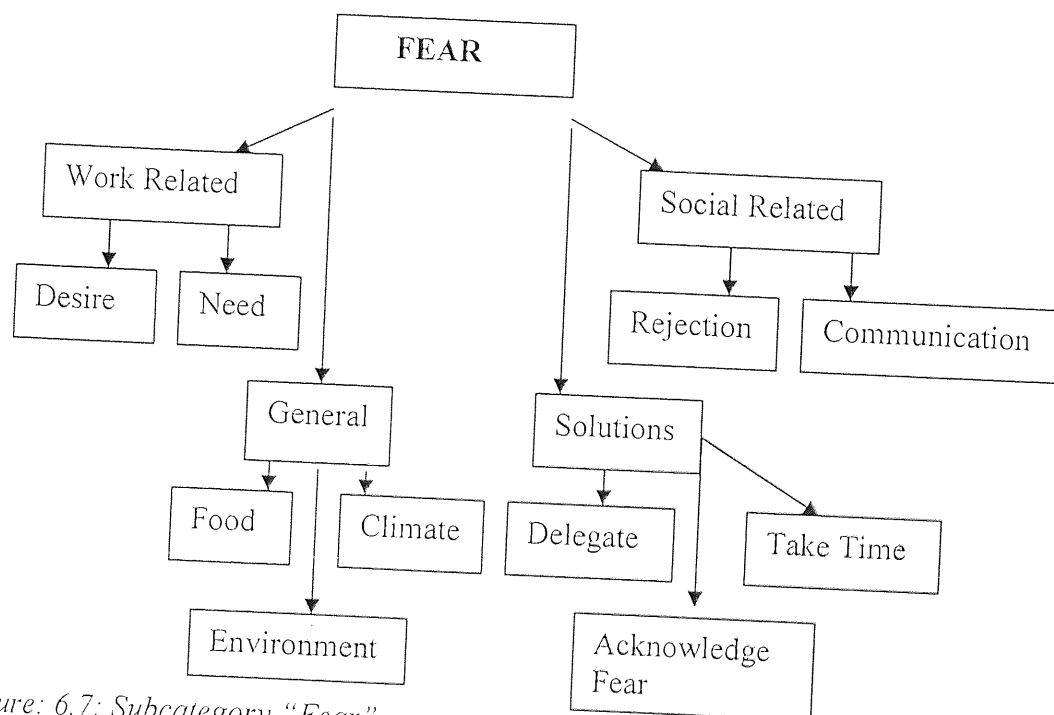


Figure: 6.7: Subcategory "Fear"

Fear refers to the negative feelings of the expatriate managers' pre departure and during the assignment. The fears could be work related, general or socially related. This consists of fear of rejection, food, climate, environment, leadership/management style, subordinate reactions and communication. The expatriate managers indicated that a feeling of acceptance or rejection by the host nationals affected their adjustment to work and interaction. Many found that the fear was unfounded while for others it was real. For example:

"One of my fears at the time was not being accepted as a new manager/director. But people reassured me that I was doing a good job. I capitalized on that, the principle that came from that "let us build on our strengths not our weaknesses"

For those that felt accepted there was collaboration but others felt that they were not welcome; it was as if they were intruders. It is well expressed in this extract:

"I am not sure what fears I came with, in terms of being an expatriate manager. Ethiopians expect you to prove why you are here. Again in previous countries people were always very grateful that you came. The Ethiopians ask you why do you want to come and help their country. Why are you in our country, what can you offer us? Prove that you are worthy having here".

These kinds of questions can be very disturbing if not frustrating to expatriates managers coming to Ethiopia for the first time, with the enthusiasm of helping people in need. All expatriates managers interviewed in Ethiopia mentioned the common fear of not getting a work permit or it not being renewed. It was difficult to achieve goals in a hostile environment with strict regulations and some basic facilities were not available, e.g. no easy access to the internet and mobile phone lines have to be applied for. In addition to this, was the fear of different kinds of staple foods which was real for some, *"I am not used to certain kinds of foods, I get sick and can never adapt to their cuisine"*. For others, the constant heat affected their health while some looked forward to the seasonal rains but dreaded catching malaria. In the work place, they indicated the fear of being plunged into the reality of Kenya or Ethiopia, not knowing whether the interaction with subordinates will be smooth and whether the leadership style would work in these cultures. For those who were not trained managers, they wondered how to make people change and keep the organizations mission alive.

Finally, there was the fear of communication and its medium, be it English or the native language. Although some had learnt the local language, they realised that words have several meaning given the context. For example,

"My major fear was to be able to understand the individual, whether it is a refugee or a member of staff. I had that because when we communicate, words have different meanings in the given context and working with different languages. Therefore, my greatest fear was understanding people since they are from different places".

Having identified their fears, the expatriate managers were asked how they managed to cope with these fears. Solutions included acknowledging the fear and dealing with it, being patient by asking time to settle, delegating, consulting, seeking advice and getting auditors.

Solutions to Fear

For the managers, knowing what they were afraid of, finding the reasons why and trying to get solutions was the first step. This was expressed in different ways; *"I asked questions when I felt I was not understood or vice versa. My fears were ungrounded. Most important was the realization that it takes time to settle, by doing nothing for the first month, observing how things are done. In some cultures like Ethiopia, it takes time to earn respect and to know the*

way things are done. If overwhelmed, then delegate, consult, seek advice. Seeking assistance from staff and professionals to help settle problems or difficult situations was advisable. One of the managers said *"I learnt to trust my staff and seek assistance when in doubt. I delegated work and consulted professionals"*. Finally, another solution given was to live with differences and not to force situations because different cultures have their own ways of living. Things move slowly in cultures like Kenya and Ethiopia and one has to realise that it is impossible to put oneself completely in another culture.

Adjustment theorists (Thorbiorn, 1982; Black et al, 1991) have argued that moving into a new environment creates a significant level of uncertainty and that people in general have a need to reduce that uncertainty. This can be done by predictive control and behavioural control (Bell and Straw, 1989). Predictive control is the ability to make sense of, or predict one's environment while behavioural control is the ability to control one's own behaviours that have an important impact on the current environment. These were also expressed by the expatriate managers in this study.

6.3.1.3 Age, Gender and Nationality

Age refers to whether being young or old affects work and interaction with subordinates. The expatriates confirmed what is in the literature that there is high respect for age and authority (Jackson, 2004; Dia, 1991). Age was not an issue because position also commands respect and as managers their positions gave them respect. There was mutual respect with their subordinates and experience added to it. The subordinates had been working in their positions for some time and the new managers respected their expertise and knowledge of the work environment. Despite that, in Ethiopia, the manager had to prove her/his value to be fully accepted.

Nationality referred to whether one's country of origin affects the way one is treated in the host country. In both Kenya and Ethiopia, the expatriates indicated that they were prioritized according to their country of origin. In Ethiopia especially, "a foreigner is always a foreigner" although attitudes towards countries differ and some are easily accepted.

The managers also responded to the gender question, whether they felt that reactions and obedience of subordinates depended on their gender. In one organization, out of 35

managers, only two were women. The expatriates indicated that foreign women managers were seen as genderless and ageless. Examples of age, nationality and gender are as follows:

"I am a shemagele (old person in Amharic), and there is respect for old age in this culture. I do not think nationality is a problem. Sometimes Ethiopians have a priority regarding the cultures of peoples. Attitudes towards different cultures are evident, but Ethiopians have a positive attitude to France and her people".

This is what one of the managers' expressed:

"More than age, my gender, I sometimes feel that they would listen more to a man, it is just a feeling not concrete. Although Ethiopians are very respectful and polite people, they are also proud and this reflects in the behaviour of the people that I work with."

Finally from an expatriate manager in Kenya:

"In this culture, there is respect, I have experienced that. As for nationality, they take you as a foreigner, there are those who are ambitious and want your work. Americans seem to be more rejected than the Irish. I think the Irish have a certain affinity with East Africans. There are certain similarities. People here know that I am very Irish".

These and other examples indicate the impact of age, gender and nationality on expatriate managers. Being respected because of age and position must have a positive relation to their adjustment. Growing old is associated with increasing maturity (Jackson, 2004), therefore it is likely that older expatriate managers in Kenya and Ethiopia find it easier to live and work there since their suitability will be less in doubt by local people making it easier for them to adjust than younger expatriate managers. As for gender, although it is said that men anticipate difficulties in working with women managers and avoid arguing with them, hesitating to criticize them (De Leon and Ho, 1994), being a foreign woman and a voluntary expatriate manager may change the picture drastically. They are seen first as foreigners and not expected to assume cultural roles that societies have traditionally reserved for their women. They are seen as foreigners who happen to be women not women who happen to be foreigners (Owen, 2002). Therefore, it is not likely that gender will have a significant impact on the adjustment of the expatriate manager. It is important to note that these sub-categories will have some impact on the successes and difficulties encountered because of personal and organizational constraints.

6.3.1.4 Successes and Difficulties Encountered

Success refers to the accomplishments of the individual according to self and organization. Individual successes are personal, work related, culture and interactions. These included the ability to listen, discover and learn; be non judgmental, taking things calmly. The managers also explained that they had learnt to slow down, to live with frustrations, were able to delegate, trust staff, had learnt the language (Amharic, Kiswahili), had Kenyan/Ethiopia

friends and these helped some of them to be more open. The following is an example of how a manager expressed his success:

"I have learnt a bit of the language. I feel I can communicate the major items and that is an ongoing struggle. I have learnt to live with some frustrations of a different system and not to expect things I should expect. To try and live with the system that regulates our agencies as they are and not as I would like them to. I knew that there was a difference in culture, but it is one thing to be clear in your mind and another to live it better. I suppose, I have got a little better at accepting differences especially in communication and the ways people will say things or not say things. I think I am clearer within the organization of what I think we can do and what we are likely to do."

Organizational success consists of accomplishing organizational goals and mission. The managers indicated that they had introduced various programs, capacity building in encouraging staff, empowerment; dealing with donors effectively, collaborations with other NGOs. Regarding structural adjustment, the successes included redefining targets, clarifying organizational goals and running the office efficiently.

These personal and organizational successes are important in the adjustment process. Some explained that living in local neighbourhoods gave them an understanding of their ways and made it easier to adjust to them. This resulted in appreciation and confidence and they felt that they were accountable to Kenyans/Ethiopians and not to the donors. Gender issues were addressed introducing new approaches to problems. This was well expressed by an expatriate manager in Kenya when he said:

"I would say there has been success. I have managed to introduce a different kind of philosophy into the way that we would proceed about doing business. People had taken the eye of the ball in terms of project management; we made an error in implementation. This has been corrected. My greatest success has been reversing the trend or donor intervention to managers being accountable to the people. We cannot serve foreign governments, we cannot serve anybody else except our constituents, which is those who are poor and disfranchised to whom justice is denied, those who are not able to exercise their human rights."

This extract shows that some expatriate managers are affected by the plight of the people and respond to their needs. This response is an indication that they have adjusted to the situation of the people they have been assigned to assist and empathize with them.

The difficulties referred to the problems faced in the adjustment process. The difficulties were personal, organizational and from the host country nationals. The personal difficulties were in personality, work place and interactions. The problem of openness/trust was mentioned and the dislike of making decisions, mismatch of expectations, lack of

confidence, success oriented, not knowing anyone. Organizational difficulties involved implementing organizational goals, mandate etc. They were faced with the slowness of information either through phones (not working) or the internet. Support systems were not working (relocation logistics); it was difficult to initiate new work, the staff had difficulty in understanding international standards and the parent country misunderstood realities in Ethiopia/Kenya and the organization had financial constraints. This is how one expressed it:

"The difficulties are so far the rigidity of international contracts. Many of our contracts are so rigid that it is impossible to make corrective changes. Thus the difficulty is what you can or cannot do, not just the availability of funding, but constraints that are placed on those funds."

Regarding the host nation and its nationals, there was the jealousy of staff and power struggle. The problem of language and communication at times resulted in being misunderstood. How to approach the culture was problematic, there was gender sensitivity and the rhythm of life was slow. The expatriate managers also indicated that a major problem was delays in permits, visas and a mistrust of foreigners in Ethiopia. The reliance on academic qualifications inhibited people from being innovative. Otherwise, they felt that they were not able to contribute to something new.

The importance of this section is that these difficulties affect individual adjustment. Knowing the realities and the difficulties helps one adjust expectations and work strategies. It is these difficulties that cause failures in adjustment if not dealt with sufficiently and in time (Forster, 1997; Selmer, 2002; Sanchez et al, 2000).

6.3.1.5 Subordinate Reactions

Expatriate managers indicated whether they felt that their subordinates were committed to the organization, motivated and satisfied with their jobs. This is a result of the interaction of the managers and subordinates. Commitment refers to the subordinate feeling as part of the organization and happily working to accomplish its goals. Managers expressed the high NGO turn over, whether it was because of lack of commitment or simply moving to greener pastures. For some, commitment was moderate to good, the values of the organization were kept and they could be trusted. They emphasised that there are different levels of commitment and loyalty; enthusiasm could be an indication of commitment. Although some were not professionally trained, their managers felt that they were committed. Examples from the expatriate managers are as follows:

"I have a mixture, a very loyal staff, middle management, who focus on the work that has to be done. Then there are those who are there for different reasons, those who bring petty politics".

"In the beginning, I found these people very committed. This is a humanitarian organization. In justice the employees have to be treated well if they have to be committed and to perform. Yet, there is a certain ambiguity, they see us as an NGO and therefore, rich with lots of money, not realising that the money is from funders".

Motivation refers to the subordinates being able and willing to work for the organization. There is no external force in this willingness. Managers indicated that wages could be a motivation; good salaries made subordinates stay long in the organization. Another motivating factor was encouraging capacity building. Some did not need to be motivated, their desire and dedication to build their country was motivation in itself. They were happy to implement something valuable. On the other hand, some managers noted that what they reported was only an impression; it is difficult to know whether the subordinates were motivated, it depended on the subordinate. Some were not motivated and needed a job description and a proper contract even if they were volunteers. This is how the managers expressed their observations:

"As far as I can see, they are motivated. They have some attachment to the job they are doing. It depends on who you are talking about, but generally they are effective. It is only my impression".

"In general, I would say we have a moderate to good level of commitment. It depends on what is going on in a particular place. Motivation is high when they know that they are implementing something that they believe is of help to the people. They see it as valuable. Where you have a portfolio of projects give us to implement, and when they do not seem relevant to the people around them, then they are not so motivated. If you act on donor contracts then the motivation is low, but if driven by Kenyan contracts, it is different".

Job satisfaction refers to when the subordinate is happy working for the organization and feels fulfilled. It was indicated that although most were satisfied, they still needed higher NGO salaries. Evidence of their being satisfied was shown by their performance which was good. Some were not satisfied because of different expectations which were not met.

These reactions reported by expatriate managers could be encouraging if there is high commitment, motivation and satisfaction leading to easier interaction and adjustment. On the other hand, it can be discouraging if the subordinates have not so noble motives of being in the organization. Therefore, the expatriate manager will need organizational support in the assignment and in the adjustment process.

6.3.1.6 Organizational Support

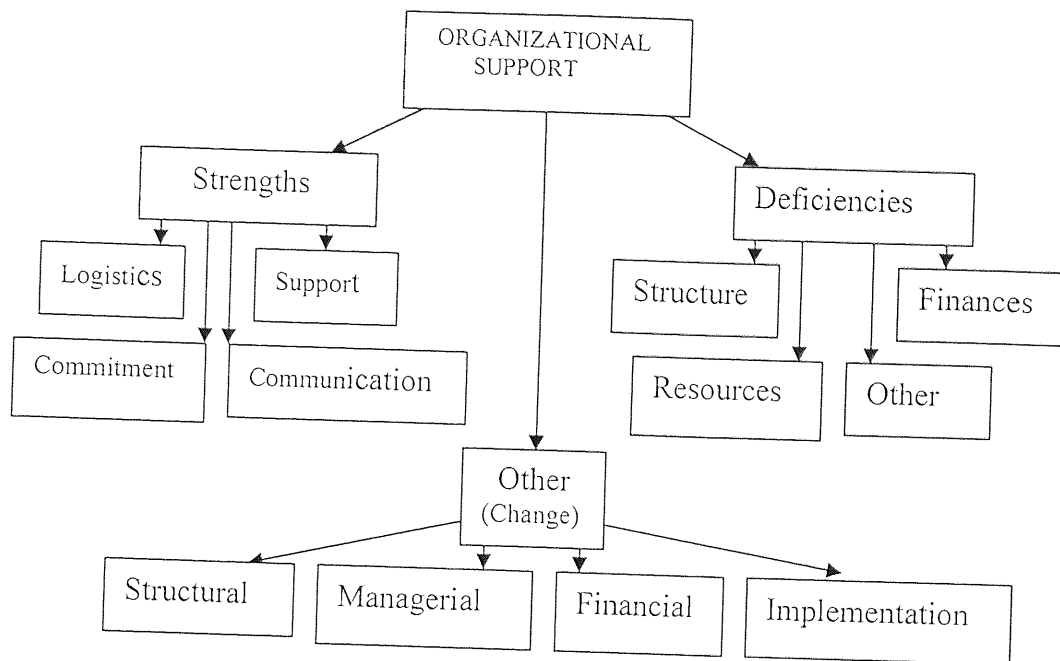


Figure 6.8: Subcategory "Organizational Support"

Strengths

The strengths and deficiencies of the organization can affect the assignment (Florkowski and Fogel, 1999). The strengths consisted of logistics, support, communication and commitment. Logistics refer to whether the necessary needs are in place when the expatriate arrives. That includes the house, car, telephone, and school for the children, quality of personnel and equipment. The level of staff is important, whether they are dedicated and committed.

Support refers to whether the organization takes upon itself to find out if the manager needs assistance of any kind e.g. relocation assistance, financial, staff and equipment.

They indicated that top management support is received from headquarters. There are in built tools, e.g. meetings, work appraisals, no interference with some degree of autonomy given. Another support was the structure of the organization with management systems in place. The history of the organization, its closeness to clients has gained respect internationally and this gave credibility to what they did. In addition, the organization has good reputation, international experience and less bureaucracy. This is what was said about support:

"The support of those at the top was appreciated. Also there are inbuilt tools, weekly meetings, regional meetings, country meetings where the whole appraisal of my own work and the work of the teams was very much put forward. I feel that the organization has a lot in place. It is my responsibility to see that what has been set is enforced".

"The strength would lie within the experience and competence of our staff. The relationship that CARE has with the government is helpful. Our experiences around the planet, that can help us bring new ideas, new approaches".

Communication refers to whether there is a constant flow of information between the head office and the expatriate in the assignment. Are the different mediums of communication used? For most expatriates their organizations responded to questions and reports promptly. Newsletters sent periodically and phone calls to inquire whether all was well, encouraged the manager in the assignment and in the process of adjustment. What follows is an example of consultation:

"There is support from the headquarters, we have a team spirit. I am a decision maker on this assignment, but I do not take this decision alone, I make it with my superiors or colleagues here and in Paris. It is a team work, I consult my colleagues".

Finally, commitment refers to whether or not the organization is committed to the foreign project. Does it respond to the demands and emergencies swiftly? Expatriates indicated that donors were supportive, funds were available and budgets were approved. This was an indication of some kind of commitment.

Deficiencies

These include organizational structure, finances, resources and others that do not fall into the sub-categories. Organizational structure refers to the structure of the organization, decision making and reporting. The managers indicated that former managers may have been problematic and the problem was not solved, e.g. employing untrained and inexperienced staff, not enough foreign staff because of recruitment policies. Some organizations are too bureaucratic and there is no autonomy. Support and management systems are not in place and some structures e.g. projects are functioning independently

Finances referred to whether or not funds are readily available. Some managers felt insecure with partners and donors because they were not sure if the budget would be approved and if the funds would be dispatched in time. In some organizations management and finance do not work efficiently together and this can cause a lot of frustrations especially to the expatriate manager. An extract will illustrate this point:

"The insecurity with partners, who are the donors. There are always so many questions. At one stage there were accusations that we wanted to clarify our trust with them; they needed

to build our trust with us and us with them. This was very stressful for me. When the funders are suspicious then we cannot act and do something that is suitable for the community. When I sought advice from Board members, the chairperson was very cautious”

These kinds of encounters are not only stressful but can affect the expatriates work and relationship with subordinates since they need funds to implement projects, but funds can be delayed or not arrive at all.

Resources referred to whether or not what is needed by the projects was available or could be got easily. In both Kenya and Ethiopia, they indicated that the infrastructure was a problem. It was difficulty to mobilize for emergency as required, and resources were scarce.

Other organizational issues were staff and gender. There was an indication of some distrustful staff, especially middle managers who were looking for promotion. In many of the organizations there was gender insensitivity and there was no program in place to deal with it. Another issue was the reality of the first and third worlds e.g. the rate of work, sending reports and responding to emergencies. An answer maybe needed in a day, but there maybe no electricity for two or three days and so emails could not be responded to. An observation usually forgotten is the insecurity of staff to foreign influence. An expatriate manager frustrated with his own country's bureaucracy and insensitivity says this:

“Part of the deficiency was me, I do not know the cultural context and taking time to learn it. I am part of this organization. It has taken me time to learn about the culture; little more about each staff member. The management and finance systems do not work, and what are the implications of implementing a new system”.

“The major problem is staff recruitment on the expatriate side. It was difficult to get good experienced people. Another limitation was the reality of the difference between the first and third world .The expectations of the first world were not met because of problems with the infrastructure.

Literature supports what was indicated by the expatriate managers regarding strengths and deficiencies of the organization in supporting the expatriate. Munton and Forster, (1993) point out that organizational support facilitates adjustment when the social and logistic support is provided before the move. This reduces the expatriate's stress and uncertainties. Organizations that provide expatriates with enough financial support to maintain one's standard of living were more adjusted in the foreign country according to a study by Florkowski and Fogel (1999). Other benefits include assistance in house location, membership in clubs, assistance with schooling for children (Guzzo et al.,1993); also maintaining communication in order to alleviate his or her repatriation anxieties (Aycan ,

1997, Selmer 2000). In combination, these organizational services and benefits will facilitate adjustment to work and the general culture (Kramer et al, 2001).

When asked if they had introduced any organizational changes since such changes can increase or reduce their popularity with subordinates, they indicated that the changes were structural, managerial and financial. Twenty indicated that the organization needed restructuring with evaluation of projects by monitoring performance. New facilities were needed, job descriptions redefined and a resource centre established. Some regions were to be subdivided. Managerial referred to how the administration and general running of the organization was. One of the changes was streamlining the database, changing the management style from pyramid to circular. These changes were welcomed in many organizations where the employees felt were overdue. Financial deals with the expenditure and income of the organization and how it was administered. Changes involved systematizing finance, connecting all departments with finance, computerizing in order to have transparency. Insurance was introduced to a comprehensive cover. In addition to structural, managerial and financial changes, there were new initiatives such as new projects and closure of old ones, program planning, developing strategies, creating gender awareness, capacity building, improving the quality of care and publicity of services. Some were received favourably while others were not. These reactions affect the expatriate manager's adjustment to work and interaction. They feel encouraged by positive reception of changes and respond to subordinates favourably if they are supportive.

Summary of Adjustment and Its Subcategories

The results and discussion on the theme "adjustment" and its subcategories (expectations, fear, organizational support, etc) indicate that the managers had concerns which reflected not only their expectations but also fear of the unknown. These concerns included lack of training in management, the demands of the leadership position, effects of years of experience, knowledge of the culture, the language and coping with strategy. Although concerns and difficulties were expressed, accurate expectations could in general facilitate adjustment to the actual circumstances. There is always a sense of fear of the unknown and the expatriate managers indicated that a feeling of acceptance or rejection by the host nationals affected their adjustment to work and interaction. Solutions to fear included acknowledging the fear and dealing with it, being patient by taking time to settle,

delegating, consulting, seeking advice and getting auditors to assist. These were facilitated by the respect accorded by subordinates to age and to the position of managers. In both Kenya and Ethiopia, the expatriates were prioritized according to their country of origin while foreign women managers were seen as genderless and ageless.

The managers explained that personal and organizational successes are important in the adjustment process, yet there were difficulties encountered. Subordinate reactions as seen by their expatriate managers were an indication of how the subordinates were assessed.

Expatriate managers indicated that committed subordinates kept the organizations values, showed enthusiasm and were trusted. Regarding organizational support in the adjustment process, expatriate managers indicated that strengths and deficiencies of the organization can affect the assignment and that top management support is received from headquarters.

This theme of adjustment and its sub categories has covered parts of all the five research questions. The next section on knowledge will cover research question one and two which includes pre and in-residency, plus post residency knowledge and cross cultural training.

6.3.2 Knowledge

6.3.2.1 Pre-Assignment Knowledge

In response to whether they had knowledge of the host country before departure, 60% had and 40% did not have knowledge of the host country. Those who had knowledge of the host country had received it from reading, courses, previous experience, visits to the country, and from the media. Reading includes books, articles, reports, pamphlets on Ethiopia and Kenya. The managers expressed that books on Ethiopia were mostly about history, rather academic, while the tourist ones were not very informative. The courses consisted of university programs or orientation programs prepared by the organization such as APSO in Ireland VSO in UK and Peace Corp in USA. The university programs were in development and African studies. Some extracts will elaborate:

"I had been doing a lot of reading, obviously you do not learn as much as when you are in a country. But I tried to prepare myself. The biggest obstacle was the language. I was in Angola before I came here, I tried to get all the possible books and videos on Ethiopia".

"I think I was more prepared than most because I had gotten a degree in African Studies with concentration on Ethiopia".

Previous experience referred to experience of working in the country with people from abroad or being involved in activities about that country. More than 70% of the respondents had worked in Africa, understood the political and economic complexities and the importance of socio-political analysis and awareness. Most had been exposed to food and culture and had Ethiopian and Kenyan friends, and some even knew the language (Amharic or Kiswahili).

Visits referred to whether or not they had visited the host country or other countries in Africa. More than 50% of the expatriate managers had visited Sub-Saharan Africa, others had been to Kenya and Ethiopia for conferences or for vacation and others had resided in these countries before.

The Media included newspapers, magazines videos, radio, TV that reported on Kenya and Ethiopia. Unfortunately for some, they had heard only cliché's about Ethiopia as the land of famine and war and Kenya as the land of safari, with tribal clashes. There is always more to be learnt. An example of this is expressed as follows:

"Yes, I knew a little. Kenya and UK had a long relationship, through colonization. It is only 40 years since Kenya got independence. Kenya has been marketed in the UK for its colour, for its wild life, for its national parks, but the real issues in Kenya have not been floated in the UK. Any disquiet that has occurred in the past ten years was never really broadcast in the UK.I came here expecting a country of violence many giraffes and lions, I have not seen many giraffes, or lions and I have not seen much violence. Except that I do not know how people live, the prices are so high, I can shop more cheaply in Oxford street in London than I can in Yaya centre (a shopping mall in Nairobi)".

The remaining 40% who had not had pre-knowledge of the host country admitted that they knew very little and indicated that in today's world it is not possible to know nothing about a country. The reason for not knowing much was to avoid preconceived ideas that would cloud their judgment in the host country. It may be advisable to learn in the field with humility and patience. This raises the question of whether cross cultural training is necessary. The next section addressed this in terms of research question two.

6.3.2.2 Cross Cultural Training

The manager's responses indicated that 70% of those in Kenya and 60% of those in Ethiopia had received cross cultural training. This subcategory consists of its importance, programs, host country nationals, the training and suggestions. Its importance referred to whether they

thought the training they received was helpful in the adjustment process. The general view was that it is needed. There is need for some understanding of why and how people do what they do. This supports literature that confirms that pre-move training and cultural briefing can help expatriate staff adapt to living and working in new environments (Forster, 2000; Smith and Still, 1997; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1986).

Programs refer to what should be included in the training. The following were mentioned: demographics of the country, geography, history, social life, infrastructure, language, ways of communication and the history and culture of the organization in the country. In addition, the training most of the expatriate did before and during the assignment included courses on cross cultural living, learning skills, courses on cross cultural differences, one year of orientation, and graduate programs for those working overseas. To illustrate this, an expatriate manager responded in the following way:

"I did a cross cultural course for about six months before I picked up my first assignment in Kenya. It was at different levels. I was looking at my strengths and weaknesses. Then I did a lot of personal study and reading and reflection with others about my initial adjustment. That was very helpful, then I did some language study which was very useful. Then as I worked over the years, I began to draw friendship with Kenyans or with people of that culture. As we grew in friendships and understanding, there was sharing of the underlying subtle understanding about a certain culture which ordinarily would not be shared, e.g. "I really mean this, the truth about something". At first they had told me things I would be comfortable with, but with real friends we would say things that were more difficult to accept. This was helpful to me in my adjustment".

Some indicated that host country nationals should also have cross cultural training. This, it was thought would enhance mutual understanding and knowledge of the expatriate's culture. Results for quantitative research on cultural and leadership dimensions in chapter five and from the GLOBE study could be used in the training of both expatriates and subordinates. Resources for programs could be found in House et al, 2004; Tung, 1982:65; Brewster and Pickard 1994.

Suggestions from the managers and the researcher include; building an institute for cultural studies in both Kenya and Ethiopia for local managers and expatriates wishing to work in these countries. It is important to include cultural empathy in training courses for expatriates. This refers to any procedure intended to increase an individual's ability to cope and work in a foreign environment. Although some suggested that it is better to learn from daily life, from mistakes and therefore, through experience and discovery, the majority emphasized the importance of cross cultural training.

Despite this expressed need, a number of organizations still do not provide formal cross cultural training (Scullion, 1994, Forster, 2000, Selmer 2004). The reasons given by these organizations for this lack of cultural training are: a lack of proven effectiveness (Baker and Ivancevich, 1971, Tung, 1981, Schwind, 1986) and time constraints reported by (Tung, 1982, Gertsen, 1990, Forster, 2000).

In general, results from this study evidenced by expatriate managers' responses conclude that pre-moving training helps them to adjust to living and working in Kenya and Ethiopia. Therefore, expatriate cross cultural training was recommended and expected to be continued during the assignment.

6.3.2.3 In-Residency Knowledge

This refers to the knowledge received or acquired in the assignment in the host nation. The managers indicated that this depended on a number of factors such as the openness of the expatriate manager to learn from the subordinates and other host nationals, and the willingness of the nationals to teach and share their culture. The managers responded to the question on whether or not the period of time spent in the assignment had helped their understanding of the host country's culture and people. Those who responded with a "yes" focused on the following: general, language, people, culture, and country meaning that they understood the culture and people better, while those who said "no" talked of attitudes and time period.

General referred to how the expatriate viewed the people and culture after being with them. A number of them said that they were more accepting and less sensitive and had insights into the situation. They also realised how little they knew and developed a mutual understanding between them and their subordinates. Regarding the language, did it make a difference to learn it? They indicated that language is not enough; meaning of words became a barrier. English is often a hindrance in understanding culture because of the difficulty in expression for foreigners. When asked whether they interacted with the people, in what way, e.g. social gatherings, meetings, pub etc, they responded in praise of the people. They expressed the humaneness of the societies, people care, there is solidarity, yet, there are also family constraints. Ethiopians are attentive, caring, understanding and friendly. This kind of observation must be a result of some social contact with the people.

Culture referred to the aspects of culture that the expatriates now understood better and appreciated. They distinguished the different cultures and tribal variations (identity) and uniqueness (individuals) and life styles. Ethiopia has a unique culture but is isolated. Finally, “the country” referred to whether or not they had travelled in the country, to what parts and for what reasons. The diversity of the country and the desire for national identity was expressed. The distinction between urban and rural was made in connection with varying cultures. It was expressed by more than 90% of the expatriates that this knowledge helped them to be more sensitive to the culture and people and to interact with them more, thus enhancing interaction and adjustment. The following extract is evidence for in residency knowledge of the host nation situation:

“I gained some understanding slowly, not as much as I would have hoped. My wife and I travelled a lot in Kenya and it has been interesting to interact with people at a normal life. People are struggling to make ends meet. I do not find poverty as deep as I have experienced in some places.....Kenya as a nation has had a long history of tribalism. This has provided for members of tribes and clans a sense of identity and that sense of identity is important in terms of identifying who people are and here they are going with their lives. What I am noticing today coming in as an outsider is that it seems to me that you have got a divide from your urban and rural population by the concept of a united Kenya. The rural population buy the concept of tribal identity, e.g. in deaths, burials, marriages. The urban dynamic has been driven by the global forces of globalization to interact with Kenya as a nation and so think of them as negative”.

This extract indicates that this expatriate manager has acquired knowledge of the current situation in the country and has reflected on the impact of this on the projects he has to implement especially in the rural areas.

Those who indicated that they did not understand the culture and people better after living with them were asked to give their views on the people and country. They mentioned that the attitude of fellow expatriates showed that they had not integrated themselves in the culture. What they said and how they acted towards maids and their subordinates was unacceptable. Secondly, they were asked to consider the time period, “how long does it take to understand a culture”? It was noted that it is not the period of time, it is seeking to understand. This is how one expressed it;

“I took a course, also language, related with people, understanding their history, where they are coming from. It takes time to understand attitudes and behaviour of other people. There is still a lot to learn”.

Even after the assignment, the manger continues to reflect on the experiences gained. This can be a valuable recourse for organizational career experiences for training purposes.

6.3.2.4 Post Residency Knowledge

This is the knowledge that had been received in the years on the assignment. It is a kind of personal wisdom that can be shared with those hoping to be assigned to Kenya or Ethiopia. This section will summarize the philosophies and advice from the expatriate managers that participated in the study.

Philosophy of Management

Knowing the managers' philosophy of management helps us to understand why the managers manage the organization the way they do. The subcategories were, general, people, work and leader. The general views were expressed that a manager is at the service of others and should be flexible to change and prepared to admit mistakes. A management team is essential for consultation in decision making although the manager is the final decision maker. Bottom up management in decision making is preferred i.e. consulting at the grassroots level because those at the local level are familiar with the situation and it becomes participatory decision making. Regarding accountability, the manager should lead by example by being transparent. The manager should maximize the effectiveness of resources. The three Ss (strategy, space and support) were suggested as a workable philosophy. This is how one manager expressed it:

"Someone else articulated it for me, the three Ss: strategy, space and support. First, the leader or director should provide a consensual strategic direction so that people know where they are going in terms of a broad path. e.g. we are moving towards the mitigation of the effect of HIV/AIDS on orphans or children. That provides a strategy where people can follow. Given the "space" which means they have room to design within that strategy, what they would need to do to achieve their general sense of direction. You are saying, go and use your professional capabilities to make that happen and then you provide "support". This is a philosophy of pushing organizational governance downwards, it is a philosophy of decentralization and it is a philosophy of empowering of decision makers at the lowest possible level".

The subcategory "people" refers to how they should be treated and what responsibilities should be given to them. The expatriate managers emphasized that reliable, dependable, honest and hardworking staff should be identified. The people should be placed in the right jobs and training should continue. The manager should know personalities; he/she should draw people and not drive them thus developing relationships beyond professionalism. Management should be person focused where the manager tries to understand people and respect them. For example;

"In management you have to listen to your people. And from time to time they have requests, and they can be painful at times. It is usually money requests. I feel they all get a just salary. That is a continued problem in management. They come for a loan, or they are sick, etc,

how you work with all these people and keep them happy and motivated and be a manager to them is the art of management”.

Regarding work, the philosophy is decentralization - downward governance. A working atmosphere needs to be created by listening, sharing experiences, having regular meetings, organizing work, coordinating, and reviewing performance. Job descriptions that is flexible enough to achieve objectives. Develop a team spirit where colleagues discuss and interact.

Finally, qualities of a good leader/manager were mentioned. There is the facilitating role, to motivate, recognize, and show directions, commitment. A good manager is patient with the employees, trusts, delegates, encourages talent, takes responsibility, initiates, empowers (in making decision) and offers constructive criticisms. These qualities enhance effective leadership which draws positive reactions from subordinates.

Expatriate managers who have stayed in the assignment for more than two years are able to develop philosophies of management that they think are applicable in their situation. The ability to adapt management styles that are preferred by the people is a step towards work and interaction adjustment. Feedback from colleagues helps shape and refines the manager's philosophies. At the end of their assignment, they are able to give advice to their successors. The next section deals with that kind of advice.

Advice for New Expatriate Managers

A summary of advice to the new expatriate managers is given in the discussion section (Ch. 7). Similar advice was given for both countries by participating expatriate managers. The central message is: *“Keep your eyes and ears open and your mouth shut; listen, listen and listen again!”* Transfer of information between expatriate predecessor and the successor is important i.e. general briefing from the predecessor on how to run the organization in the specific cultural context as well as information on ongoing and concluded projects during the predecessor's assignment.

Summary of the theme “Knowledge”

The results and discussion on the theme “knowledge” and its subcategories indicate that knowledge and training to gain knowledge is essential for expatriate managers who need to work in Kenya and Ethiopia. Pre-assignment knowledge received through reading, courses, previous experience, visits to the country and the media was regarded as helpful yet for some learning in the field with humility and patience was more desirable. Although some

managers suggested that it is better to learn from daily life; from mistakes and therefore, through experience and discovery, the majority emphasized the importance of cross cultural training.

They recommended that all prospective expatriates should undergo cultural sensitivity training to sensitize them to the requirement of the host culture.

In residency knowledge was the result of living and interacting with host nationals. The expatriates expressed the humaneness of these societies; people care, there is solidarity but there are also family constraints. Through contact with the host nationals, the expatriates observed that they were attentive, caring, understanding and friendly. They now understand the people and culture better and appreciate them. Most expatriates expressed that this knowledge helped them to be more sensitive to the culture and people and to interact with them more, thus enhancing interaction and adjustment.

Finally, post residency knowledge which includes the experience and knowledge acquired during the assignment was summarized in their philosophies of management and advice to the new expatriate managers. It was emphasized that managers were at the service of others and should be flexible to change and prepared to admit mistakes. Subordinates should be consulted in decision making, while accountability and transparency was considered vital. Management should be people focused with a working atmosphere created by listening, sharing experiences, having regular meetings, organizing work, coordinating and reviewing performance i.e. developing a team spirit where colleagues discuss and interact. The ability to adapt management styles that are preferred by the host nationals is a step towards work and interaction adjustment. The central message to the new expatriate is: "Keep your eyes and ears open and your mouth shut: Listen, listen and listen again".

In conclusion, although former experience of working in other countries is useful, each country is different and hence the necessity of cultural training in order to lessen the uncertainty in the new assignment. The next section deals with the theme "experience" i.e. experience gained in other countries and careers.

6.3.3 Experience

The theme "experience" consists of sub-categories, career and position. This is a response to part of research question three. Previous experience is another source of valuable pre-knowledge (Black et al, 1995). This could constitute an important source of information,

especially if this experience was gained in the same or similar culture as the current one (Selmer, 2001:917).

Career refers to the level of education and the professions of the expatriate managers, whether a degree or technical training was completed. In this study, five managers had completed the doctoral level, twenty completed masters level, two bachelors and one technical training. They expressed that they gained expertise in their field through experience especially working in other cultures because their assumptions were challenged. Before their current position, their professions were varied, they included; nursing, development worker, UN staff member, technician, journalist, consultant, teacher, lecturer, engineer, lawyer judge and medical doctor. This variety of professions brings some richness of experience to the NGO management world. Some of the managers had multiple professions and this helped them in their current position. For example, one said:

"I started out as a pre medical student then medical school. I trained as a surgeon. I did not have much in the way of management. I was in the military, in charge of surgery. Then I set up a centre of Religion and Psychiatry in Washington D.C which was successful. It involved teaching and managing a counselling centre. I started another centre in Nairobi which is still functioning. Now I manage the Nyumbani Centre here in Nairobi".

Another had this educational and work background:

"I did Geography at the University and I travelled a lot, in Asia. Then I studied the problem of international migrations. I then joined the "Action against Hunger" four years ago, in a general management position. I had no management position when I was young with holiday camps".

These examples indicate that the managers came to their current positions with knowledge of other professions that could be used in their assignment. They confirmed that previous work experience especially in similar professions and cultural backgrounds enhanced the adjustment process.

The subcategory "position" refers to the current positions or jobs of the expatriate managers. They include programme managers, project managers, regional directors, country directors, deputy regional or country directors. Some are more demanding than others especially when field work is involved with a lot of travelling and guiding other managers in their projects. The length of time the manager has worked in leadership positions is expected to lessen the anxieties in the current leadership position.

Summary of Theme “Experience”

Expatriate managers indicated that they gained expertise in their field through experience especially working in other cultures because their assumptions were challenged. They confirmed that previous work experience especially in similar professions and cultural background enhances the adjustment process. The length of time the manager has worked in leadership positions is expected to lessen the anxieties in the current leadership position. This was confirmed by those who had led leadership positions. In addition to experience, the expatriate’s motives may affect the way he/she behaves in the assignment especially towards subordinates. This is addressed in the next section.

6.3.4 Motives

Researchers over the years have investigated three basic motives: power, the affiliation and the achievement motive (Atkinson, 1958, McClelland, 1975, 1985a, 1985b). Drawn from Murray’s (1938) human motivation taxonomy, these motives are suggested to represent the most important dimensions of human motivated behaviour (Atkinson, 1958). The *power motive* is defined as the desire to have impact on other people, to affect their behaviour or emotions (Winter, 1992a). The affiliation motive is defined as a concern for establishing, maintaining or restoring positive affective relationships with others (Heyns, Veroff, and Atkinson, 1958). The achievement motive is defined as a concern for competition against some standard of excellence and unique accomplishment (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell, 1958).

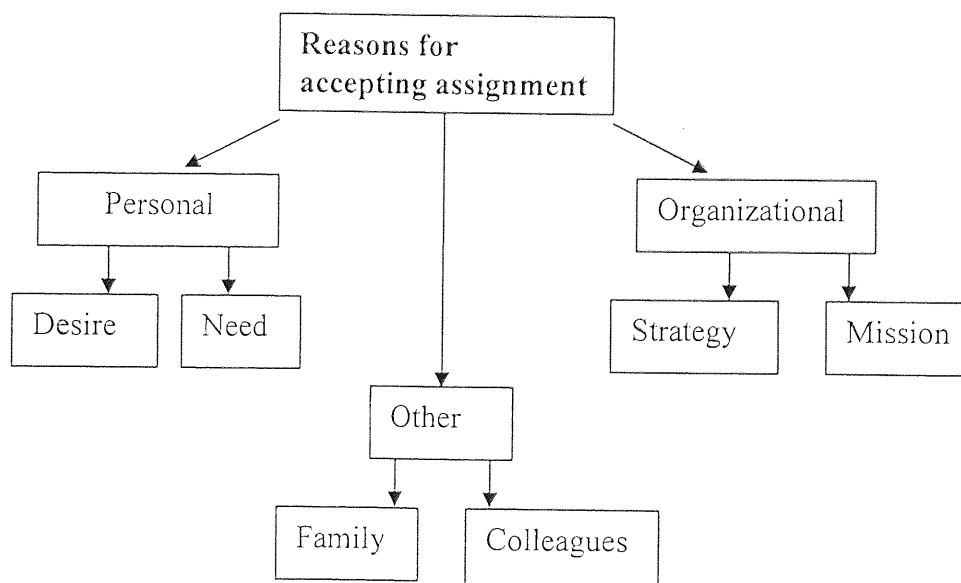


Figure 6.9: Reasons for accepting assignment

These motives have been explained in the quantitative section of analysis and results in answer to hypothesis three. They are a link between the quantitative and qualitative approaches. Their effects on expatriate behaviour are examined. Therefore, we will now deal with the expatriates' reasons for accepting their assignments (Fig. 6.9). These reasons reveal their motivations which in turn affect their behaviour and adjustment to the assignment. The subcategories include personal, organizational and other reasons. Personal reasons refer to individual desires, prompted by inner need or external observation. The expatriates indicated that some had a desire to volunteer; they had always wanted to work in Africa. For example, one said:

"I was fed up living in my own country and wanted to play a role, be operative; look for something fascinating, interesting, I like challenges of change, to put my convictions into action".

Some of the managers had started as volunteers and after some years joined another NGO. Their main purpose was to achieve something but also to be associated with some mission. Others wanted to make a difference by accepting an overseas assignment to make a humanitarian difference in Kenya and Ethiopia. This kind of motivation is likely to be followed by behaviour that is empathetic to the people ready to be of assistance. This will surely facilitate a smooth interaction adjustment. Yet, there are those that were appointed and missioned by the organization.

Organizational reasons refer to the organization's strategy, a response to subsidiary's request, and its own mission to developing countries (Forster, 1999). This could be a response to an urgent need and an experienced manager. It can be an opportunity for involvement in the organization's mission, but it can also be an assignment that cannot be refused. In that case, it is an involuntary assignment and this can have devastating effects if there is no positive attitude towards the assignment, host nation and her people Selmer, 2004; Lee, 2005).

On the other hand, other reasons for accepting the assignment could be encouragement from family, friends and colleagues. Their support and interest motivates the expatriate to perform to the best of his/her ability. The case maybe that a new job needed leadership experience and this particular expatriate possesses the skills. In general, reasons may vary for accepting an assignment from personal need and desire to participate in organization's strategy and mission, whatever the case, the motives will affect the behaviour of the expatriate either by inhibiting or contributing to effective leadership (House et al, 2004).

The inhibiting or contributing to effective leadership and adjustment may be due to the personality of the expatriate manager.

Summary of the Theme “Motives”

In this study motives are a link between qualitative and quantitative approaches. The power, achievement, affiliation and responsibility motives of the expatriate manager had an impact on subordinates. Reasons for accepting a foreign assignment were linked to motivation whether personal or organizational. Although the main purpose for some was to achieve something and be associated with an overseas mission, for most, it was to make a humanitarian difference in Kenya and Ethiopia. It was emphasized that organizational missioning gave managers an international experience, support and encouragement from family members, friends and colleagues was a source of motivation. In general, whatever the reasons for accepting the assignment, the motives do affect the behaviour of the expatriate either by inhibiting or contributing to effective leadership. The managers may also behave in certain ways because of their personality.

6.3.5 Personality

Multicultural personality traits were tested in hypothesis four in quantitative analysis. This section focuses on expatriate managers' responses regarding their strengths and weakness in accomplishing the assignment. Personality refers to the traits in behaviour that make the expatriate an effective manager/leader. The expatriate indicated the following traits as exhibiting good leadership; credibility, generosity, being adaptive and flexible; sociable, humble, patient and calm, considerate, sympathetic, diplomatic confident and trusting. Other traits that they attributed to good leadership were: decisive, competent, accommodating, ability to make people work, listener, initiator/motivator, empowering, encourager,/courageous; able to delegate, ready and open to learn; respect culture, country, people; competent in management systems, has management experience, maintains contact with funders. These traits indicated by the expatriates could be likened to those given by House et al, (2004) for effective leadership. These also support personality traits indicated in literature e.g. Alder, 1996; Buss, 1989; Costa, 1996; Caliguiri, 2000, Deller, 1997; Selmer, 2002. Examples of extracts from this study are as follows:

"I think I am a very flexible person, and I like changing environments and I like working with people. I am not a bossy type, I give a lot of space to people I am working with and that is appreciated"

"I think I am a good person to motivate people and get people on board. I am good at planning and getting better with planning and organizing because of the emergencies. Also the fact that I am accessible to people, they can come and discuss anything at all".

"I would say, I am good at motivating people, I am good at bringing people on line around a strategic direction and building consensus. I am good at supporting people in achieving an agenda. I could say that I am quite a good leader in that sense"

These three among other examples show that these managers have leadership qualities that are conducive to being an effective leader and thus working in a cross-cultural environment. Despite these strengths they all agreed to have weaknesses that make their work difficult.

The weaknesses referred to traits that hinder good leadership. These included poor health, too trusting, introvert, impatient, not a good listener; aging; not fully responsive to cases, not concrete or focused; lack of directness, disorganized (hating paperwork), easily frustrated, constantly disappointed (over achiever), success driven; workaholic, directness in admonishing – not diplomatic; expect too much – high ideals, very expectant; ambitious, demanding, aims too high, perfectionist, judgmental, confrontational. These were the personal weaknesses that the participating expatriate managers indicated they had. Some are strong inhibitors of effective leadership. In addition to these, there were external influences that caused the manager not to act as a good manager. These were; lack of proper training as a leader; Not being able to make time for social functions (anti-social); Does not like surprises (everything is planned) – not flexible; slow in making decisions, not able to delegate; focusing on criticism than strengths.

For example,

"I am quite disorganized when it comes to paper work. I really do not have the patience and yet it is very important. Financial accountability is what you have to put your eye on. I rely on those in charge. I find it the least interesting part of my work. What I try to do is motivate other people to do the paper work.

"I expect too much, always over ambitious, therefore, I am always constantly disappointed. That can be de-motivating for staff around me. I find it very difficult to lavish praise, that things are super and great when I think we should have been able to do more. It is hard and I find it hard to give people lots of encouragement and praise because I generally feel we are not doing enough".

These negative traits can affect subordinates negatively thus impacting on their commitment, motivation and job satisfaction. In general, these strengths and weaknesses

that were mentioned by the expatriate managers can be added on the list of leader traits that can hinder or enhance smooth cultural adjustment. This section has provided a possible response to research question five.

Summary of the Theme “Personality”

The theme personality and its subcategories focused on expatriate responses regarding their strengths and weaknesses in accomplishing the assignment. The personality traits indicated by the expatriate managers as exhibiting good leadership such as flexibility, sociability, considerate, open to learn, sympathetic, could be likened to what is mentioned in cross cultural and leadership literature. They also indicated weaknesses i.e. traits that hinder effective leadership such as impatience, bad listener, easily frustrated, workaholic, etc. these traits have a negative impact on subordinate commitment, motivation and job satisfaction.

6.4 Reliability and Validity of Qualitative Findings

The results were analysed from responses of expatriate managers working in non governmental organization. Given their positions in these organizations, their responses are considered reliable and the information they gave regarding their experiences and adjustment process valid. In addition, the analysis of the themes was discussed with colleagues, and the coding was done by three coders whose percentage agreement was in the acceptable range, over 80% (as explained in chapter four). The results are not meant to be generalized, but to be used by non governmental organizations in Kenya and Ethiopia in helping expatriate managers adjust to their new assignment and to the culture.

6.5 Summaries and Brief Discussion of the Main Qualitative Findings

This section summaries and briefly discusses findings according to the main themes; adjustment, knowledge, experience, motives and personality. Adjustment is a multidimensional concept related to socio cultural and psychological aspects (Black et al, 1995). “Knowledge” includes information on both the parent and host nation cultures prior to and during the assignment. The motive relevant information was gathered from expatriate managers as earlier stated. Expatriate managers expressed their personality traits and how

these were a help or hindrance in accomplishing their assignment. In the next sections we briefly discuss findings on these themes.

6.5.1 Adjustment

The findings on the theme “adjustment” and its subcategories (expectations, fear, organizational support, etc) indicate that the managers had concerns which reflected not only their expectations but also fear of the unknown. These concerns included lack of training in management, the demands of the leadership position, effects of years of experience, knowledge of the culture, the language and coping with strategy. Although concerns and difficulties were expressed, accurate expectations could in general facilitate adjustment to the actual circumstances. As adjustment theorists (Ashford and Taylor, 1990, Brett, 1980, Louis, 1988) have argued, accurate expectations will in general facilitate adjustment to the actual circumstances. This is because accurate expectations reduce the chance of “surprises” and their associated uncertainty. Met expectations theory in cross cultural adjustment presupposes that the expatriate manager is already at the assignment. Various stage models of organizational socialization (Feldman, 1976, Porter et al, 1995, Wanous, 1980, 1992) all assume that unmet expectations cause a variety of post entry adjustment problems. Black (1992) found that accurate expectations were related to higher levels of repatriation adjustment and job performance compared to inaccurate expectations. Expatriate managers in Kenya and Ethiopia confirmed that accurate expectations helped them adopt more easily since their uncertainty was unfounded.

The managers explained that personal and organizational successes are important in the adjustment process, yet there were difficulties encountered. These difficulties affected individual adjustment. Knowing the realities and the difficulties helps one adjust expectations and work strategies. It is these difficulties that cause failures in adjustment if not dealt with sufficiently and in time (Forster, 1997; Selmer, 2002; Sanchez et al, 2000). Therefore, some knowledge of the culture and host nation is necessary, before and during the assignment.

6.5.2 Knowledge

Findings on the theme “knowledge” indicate that knowledge and training to gain knowledge is essential for expatriate managers who need to work in Kenya and Ethiopia. Pre-assignment knowledge received through reading, courses, previous experience, visits to the

country and the media was regarded as helpful yet for some learning in the field with humility and patience was more desirable. Although some managers suggested that it is better to learn from daily life; from mistakes and therefore, through experience and discovery, the majority emphasized the importance of cross cultural training. They recommended that all prospective expatriates should undergo cultural sensitivity training to sensitize them to the requirement of the host culture. There is need for some understanding of why and how people do what they do. This supports literature that confirms that pre-move training and cultural briefing can help expatriate staff adapt to living and working in new environments (Forster, 2000; Smith and Still, 1997; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1986).

Despite this expressed need, a number of organizations still do not provide formal cross cultural training (Scullion, 1994, Forster, 2000, Selmer 2004). The reasons given by these organizations for this lack of cultural training are: a lack of proven effectiveness (Baker and Ivancevich, 1971, Tung, 1981, Schwind, 1986) and time constraints reported by (Tung, 1982, Gertsen, 1990, Forster, 2000).

In conclusion, although former experience of working in other countries is useful, i.e knowledge gained through experience, each country is different and hence the necessity of cultural training in order to lessen the uncertainty in the new assignment.

6.5.3 Experience

Previous experience is another source of valuable pre-knowledge (Black et al, 1995). This could constitute an important source of information, especially if this experience was gained in the same or similar culture as the current one (Selmer, 2001:917). Further literature stresses the importance of previous experience in the selection process and how this can be regarded as a factor in adjustment success (Forster, 1997; Selmer, 2000). Expatriate managers in their responses indicated that they gained expertise in their field through experience especially working in other cultures because their assumptions were challenged. They confirmed that previous work experience especially in similar professions and cultural background enhances the adjustment process. The length of time the manager has worked in leadership positions is expected to lessen the anxieties in the current leadership position. This was confirmed by those who had held leadership positions. In addition to experience, the expatriate's motives may affect the way he/she behaves in the assignment especially towards subordinates.

6.5.4 Motives

In this study motives are a link between qualitative and quantitative approaches. The power, achievement, affiliation and responsibility motives of the expatriate manager had an impact on subordinates. Reasons for accepting a foreign assignment were linked to motivation whether personal or organizational. Although the main purpose for some was to achieve something and be associated with an overseas mission, for most, it was to make a humanitarian difference in Kenya and Ethiopia. It was emphasized that organizational missioning gave managers an international experience, support and encouragement from family members, friends and colleagues was a source of motivation. In general, whatever the reasons for accepting the assignment, the motives do affect the behaviour of the expatriate either by inhibiting or contributing to effective leadership. Apart from expatriate managers, their subordinates may be committed, motivated or satisfied for various reasons.

Qualitative findings indicated that expatriate managers felt that most of their immediate subordinates were committed, motivated and satisfied with their work because of their professional experience and personalities. Organizational commitment refers to the subordinate feeling as part of the organization and happily working to accomplish its goals (House et al, 2002). It was observed by the expatriate managers that there are different levels of commitment and staff loyalty. In some of the NGOs the turn over was high, this may indicate lack of commitment or simply taking a better offer i.e. high salaries and better working conditions. Commitment can be seen as keeping core values of the organization, being enthusiastic and trustworthy. To encourage commitment, the managers need to show that they trust their immediate subordinates, are tolerant and patient.

As regards motivation, the subordinate is able and willing to work for the organization. There is no external force in this willingness. The expatriate managers noted that wages could have a motivating effect, leading to low turnover. Despite encouraging capacity building, giving a detailed job description and good salary, motivation depends on the subordinate especially with NGOs. If the subordinate is dedicated to build the country and serve people, then he/she will be convinced, and will be highly motivated if implementing something valuable. Some expatriate managers emphasized that whatever they say is only an impression of what they see, it is difficult to know whether the subordinate is truly motivated or just trying to please.

Job satisfaction refers to whether the subordinate is happy working for the organization and feels fulfilled (House et al, 2002). The high salaries given by NGOs may be the cause of some subordinates feeling satisfied. It was noted that some were not satisfied because at the first offer from another INGO with better salary, most subordinates leave and that is why there is a high turnover among INGOs in both Kenya and Ethiopia. Some may not be satisfied because their expectations are not met. In some organizations, it is the personality of the expatriate manager that drives the subordinates to resign or quit their jobs. We considered personality as an important aspect in adjustment and subordinate reactions.

6.5.5 Personality

The theme personality focused on expatriate responses regarding their strengths and weaknesses in accomplishing the assignment. The personality traits indicated by the expatriate managers as exhibiting good leadership such as flexibility, sociability, considerate, open to learn, sympathetic, could be likened to what is mentioned in cross cultural and leadership literature (House et al, 2002; Bono and Judge, 2004). A recent meta-analysis (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002) advanced this literature, providing evidence that some traits were consistently associated with leadership emergence and effectiveness. Expatriate managers also indicated weaknesses i.e. traits that hinder effective leadership such as impatience, bad listener, easily frustrated, workaholic, etc. these traits have a negative impact on leadership effectiveness and subordinate commitment, motivation and job satisfaction.

Expatriate managers commented on age, nationality, gender and marital status. Literature to support these was discussed in the last chapter. Qualitative findings indicate that in these cultures (Kenya and Ethiopia) there is high respect for age and authority, and position commands respect. Therefore, for expatriate managers, age is not an issue because of their position and in this case their immediate subordinates are managers too of different projects in the organization. They too expect respect from their expatriate managers. Unlike Kenya, for Ethiopians, the expatriate manager has to prove himself or herself before he/she is fully accepted.

In Ethiopia, expatriates are regarded as foreigners despite their country of origin, i.e. they can never be Ethiopian, yet they prioritize nations and treat their members either with friendliness or aloofness. Some countries are easily accepted while others are not. Although the managers mentioned that Kenya is more accommodating for foreigners, like Ethiopia,

some countries are more accepted than others. As regards gender, the reaction of subordinates towards expatriate managers be they male or female depends on how the manager treats them. Otherwise, foreign women managers are regarded as genderless and ageless because of their position and are respected as their position deserves.

Marital status referred to those with partners in the assignment and those without. The married expatriate managers expressed their appreciation for having their partners with them. They found them to be supportive and complementary. This was expressed in different ways; *"in my cares, frustrations, he understood me and supported me"*; *"helps me avoid silly hours of work"*; *"someone to load staff on and just mourn"*. This example was given as an advantage of having a partner. This is supported by expatriate adjustment literature (Selmer, 1997, 2002; Peltonen, 1998; Florkowski and Fogel 1999). Yet, others said that they found it easier without a spouse and depended on individuals and on personal ability to adapt. Being alone forces one to mix with other people, share ideas. Some are used to living alone and having a spouse means tradeoffs.

In addition, the expatriate managers gave their major strengths and weaknesses with regard to being managers in a foreign country. The strengths included, experience in the country, being decisive, trained, sociable and ready to learn from others; while weaknesses included lack of training as a manager, being impatient, disorganized and not knowing the language. These could be included in the multicultural personality traits; cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility. The strengths and weaknesses reflect the personality of the expatriate manager.

Limitations, Implications and Future Research

Every study has limitations, the first in this study is the small sample. Second, since adjustment is a process a longitudinal design would yield more rich results because each stage of adjustment would be evaluated and subordinates' reactions evaluated over time. Despite that, the findings are from detailed interviews offer rich information on expatriate adjustment, motive and experience. Our findings are clear implying that expatriate adjustment is a multidimensional phenomenon, and organizations have to take into account the socio-cultural and psychological aspects in the training of expatriates for them to succeed in their assignments. Future research could replicate the study in other cultures using the interview questions. Such research will enrich our understanding of expatriate adjustment, and expatriate stories could help new expatriates adjust their expectations.

Since the two cultures have different practices, expatriate managers encountered varying problems and had to develop ways of adjusting. On the other hand, their immediate subordinates reacted to their behaviour and motives by expressing their reactions through their organizational commitment, motivation and job satisfaction. What follows is a brief summary of this chapter since each main section in the chapter contains a summary.

6.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter on qualitative analysis and findings has presented the major themes and their subcategories in relation to the research questions. The main theme “adjustment” covered various sectors of the research questions. Knowledge included the subcategory cross cultural training which is vital for prospective expatriate managers. Motives provided the link between qualitative and quantitative analysis and findings with the addition of reasons for accepting the assignment. Managers are motivated by different reasons in the acceptance of an overseas assignment. Personality traits are important in determining whether or not the leader can function effectively in a cultural context, in this case their strengths and weaknesses in the assignment were considered. In general, the expatriate managers provided rich data and findings that can be used in explaining the effects of various antecedents on adjustment in Kenya and Ethiopia.

Qualitative findings enriched the quantitative findings with various reasons for the difficulties or successes in the adjustment process in these cultures. An explanation of expectations, reasons for accepting the assignment, successes and difficulties encountered and past experiences has contributed to the understanding of expatriate adjustment in Kenya and Ethiopia.

Chapter Seven

Discussion and Conclusions

In this chapter, the relationship between cultural fit, cultural practices, values and leadership on the one side and expatriate adjustment on the other are discussed first. Second, the impact of expatriate managers' personality and movies on subordinates reactions (commitment, motivation, satisfaction), is discussed and thirdly, the subordinates' reactions in relation to leader behaviour perceptions. Cross cultural training for adjustment is also discussed. Cross cultural training plays an important part in expatriate adjustment and depending on when it is given, it can have an effect on motives, expectations and modify behaviour. With cultural knowledge and sensitivity the expatriate manager is able to behave appropriately towards immediate subordinates. The chapter then outlines the study's contribution to knowledge, limitations of the study and opportunities for further study are also assessed. Finally, conclusions to the study are made.

Introduction

When expatriates embark on an international assignment, they are expected to be knowledgeable about the cultural aspects of the environment they are moving to. To succeed, they need the ability to adapt and this ability could be a result of the expatriates' perception, attitudes, behaviours, motivations, values, training and learning experience. Their culture provides the body of knowledge and techniques that enable them to act both physically and socially, in the world and provide them with world views that enable them to make sense of themselves and the people around them (Forster, 2000:2). In this study, we have examined the impact of culture, personality, motives and behaviour on the adaptability of expatriate managers and subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction. Through hypothesis testing and interview analysis findings have shown the variables with significant association with expatriate adjustment and subordinate reactions.

This chapter focuses on the discussion of the findings in relation to; first, cultural fit, cultural practices, values, leadership and expatriate adjustment. Second, the impact of expatriates' personality and motives on subordinates' reactions and subordinates reactions in relation to leader behaviours are discussed. In addition to this, multicultural personality traits, motives and behaviours affect the adjustment of the expatriate manager. This partly explains why the expatriate managers act in certain ways and why the subordinates respond the way they do. Analysis of management practices in Sub-Saharan Africa in relation to Kenya and Ethiopia is given. The chapter proceeds to explain the contribution the study has made to knowledge and the implications of this contribution. Finally, limitations and topics for future research are discussed and conclusions made. The next section discusses specific findings.

7.1 Specific Discussion on Findings

7.1.1 Cultural Fit, Societal Culture, Leadership and Adjustment

Findings indicated that cultural fit indices were not significantly associated with adjustment. This is contrary to the assumption that realised cultural similarity between host and home culture, i.e. "cultural distance" will increase adjustment success (Mendenhall and Oddou,

1985; Thorbiorn, 1982) which in turn will affect follower reactions (Selmer et al, 2001). One possible explanation for the finding is that the relationship between cultural distance and adjustment is asymmetrical. Previous findings attesting to the relationship between cultural distance and adjustment were called into question by Selmer et al's (2007) results that support the asymmetric hypothesis. Expatriates from certain countries may not adjust in Kenya or Ethiopia, but the reverse may be true if the length of assignment is controlled for. Further findings in this study indicated that expatriate cultural fit indices for values was positively associated with subordinates' reactions suggesting that expatriates from societies with similar cultural values as the host nation will most likely receive favourable reactions from their subordinates. The aspirations of both the expatriate and subordinate being similar will enhance their interaction and working together. These findings are in agreement with Aycan's (1997:267) assertion that expatriate managers who are successful at the various stages of adjustment at work and interactions have followers who view them positively and are satisfied with them and their own jobs. Further findings to support the assertion indicated that expatriate manager's work adjustment and subordinate's job satisfaction had a significant positive correlation. The success of interaction and work adjustment depends not only on the expatriate manager's competencies and skills, but also on organizational (both parent organization and local unit including subordinates) support and assistance prior to and during the assignment (Aycan, 1997).

According to literature, societal cultural practices and values affect what leaders do (House et al, 2004). Substantial empirical evidence supports this assertion (House, Javidan and Dorfman, 2001). The dominant cultural norms endorsed by societal cultures induce global leader behaviour patterns and organisational practices that are differentially expected and viewed as legitimate among cultures (House et al, 2004:45). Thus, the attributes and behaviours of leaders are, in part, a reflection of the organizational practices, which in turn are a reflection of societal cultures (Kopelman, Brief and Guzzo, 1990). Findings have indicated that although cultural fit indices were not significantly correlated with expatriate adjustment they were correlated with expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates. Cultural fit index for practices had a positive significant correlation with expatriate behaviour as perceived by subordinates indicating that the smaller the cultural practices misfit between the expatriate managers' culture and the host nation's culture, the more positive the expatriates' behaviour as perceived by subordinates.

Apart from the cultural fit indices, we explored the relationship between the dependent variables and cultural practices, values and leadership behaviours. We found that some correlated significantly with adjustment, expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinates and subordinate reactions. An interesting finding was that cultural practices and not cultural values or leadership behaviours were significantly correlated with adjustment. Power distance had a strong negative correlation with adjustment while performance and humane orientation practices were positively correlated with it. As earlier discussed, these cultural practice dimensions significantly impact on adjustment of expatriates from societies that practice them. Further analysis of the data showed that for Kenya and Ethiopia both humane orientation and in-group collectivism values mean scores were high, meaning that in these societies others are important (i.e. family, friends, community and strangers) (House et al, 2004:405); and individuals are integrated into strong cohesive groups⁶¹. This and other information on practices and values (Section, 4.9.1.2) is essential to the expatriate managers' adjustment in Kenya and Ethiopia.

7.1.1.1 Relevance of Cultural Practices and Values Findings

More specifically, on each dimension Kenya and Ethiopia were positioned in terms of both cultural Practices (As Is) and cultural values (Should Be). Cultural practices data tell us something about the current perceptions in these cultures while cultural values tap the respondents' feelings about their cultural aspirations and the direction the respondents want their culture to develop in the future (Javidan et al , 2002:9). These cultural value scores can be used to estimate cultural visions and the desire of a culture for change. If two cultures have different cultural practices (As Is) but similar values (Should Be), that latter agreement should make adjustment of expatriate managers easier than would be otherwise. Emphasizing similarities in cultural values is a good managerial strategy to minimize the potential negative consequences of the "As Is" differences for the success of expatriate adjustment. If two societies differ on cultural values and know it, it is possible for the expatriate to use this knowledge in the adjustment process. Differences in cultural values are more hidden and require more effort to be adequately understood and managed. Therefore, there is need for preparation, close monitoring and timely adjustment at all stages of the adjustment process.

National culture and cultural differences shape the subordinates motivational disposition (ibid, 15). At the general societal level, in-group collectivism is more strongly endorsed in

⁶¹ This is part of the conclusions of findings of chapter five.

Kenya and Ethiopia than institutional collectivism. In-Group collectivism is the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations, families, circle of friends, or other such small groups (House et al, 2004:437). Institutional Collectivism is the degree to which institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action. (ibid, 449). Managers in a high in-group collectivist cultures are used to working closely with the members of the in-group but less concerned with those outside their own group. They are reluctant to spend time and effort to build close relationships with outsiders. In contrast, managers from a high institutional collectivistic culture tend to promote and encourage more system wide information systems to encourage greater organizational wide communication and collaboration (Javidan et al, 2001). Expatriate managers working with subordinate managers in Kenya and Ethiopia may face these difficulties since both countries are in-group oriented and most expatriates are from institutional collectivistic cultures.

7.1.1.2 Global Dimensions of Leadership

Since the focus of this study is culture and leadership, a discussion on global dimensions of leadership in relation to findings is necessary. Dorfman et al (2004) determined the extent to which specific leadership attributes and behaviours are universally endorsed as contributing to effective leadership. Most leadership attributes from the charismatic/value based and Team oriented leadership dimensions were universally seen as positive. They are particularly sensitive to societal cultural differences, and thus can add significantly to our understanding of the peculiarities of leadership prototypes endorsed in particular societies (Brodbeck, Chhokar & House, 2007: Ch. 28). Two of the four remaining leadership dimensions were found to inhibit effective leadership. Both Kenya and Ethiopia scored low on autonomous and self protective leaderships. Dorfman et al, (2004) in culture general analysis demonstrates that autonomous leadership is negatively related to institutional values. In culture specific analysis certain aspects are revealed, for example: in Germanic cluster it is seen as a promoter of independent thought and action which is likely to result in high performance quality. In Anglo cluster it is seen as a self-centred, autocratic and directive leader attribute, while in France it is an inhibitor of effective leadership and leaders are expected to adjust to the constraints imposed by the government, social milieu and regional peculiarities (Chhokar, Brodbeck and House, 2007). In Kenya and Ethiopia, like the French, if leaders are seen to act autonomously, as individuals or as loners, who try to achieve goals on their own with low participation, they appear to work against the “whole system” and thus, are subject to suspicions thereby losing credibility (Kamoche, 2001).

Regarding self protective leadership, Dorfman et al, (2004), demonstrated that it is related to power distance and uncertainty avoidance. Face saving leadership could be viewed more positively in more collective societies as reflecting group protection rather than self protecting (Triandis and Bhawuk, 1997). Self protective reflects status consciousness, conflict inducing or procedural behaviours are perceived positively in in-Group collectivistic societies and negatively in individualistic societies. Kenya and Ethiopia scores are close to the median point indicating that it was perceived as an inhibitor or neutral to effective leadership. In in-Group societies, it is perceived as contributing to effective leadership.

Participative leadership contributes to outstanding leadership for all societies and cultural clusters studied (House et al, 2004). Analyses show that it is related to humane orientation, performance orientation and gender egalitarianism and negatively to uncertainty avoidance. Kenya and Ethiopia are particularly attuned to Participative leadership. It is associated with treating others as equals, being highly informal, tapping into the inner passions of the people, and being not pre-occupied with oneself (Brodbeck, Chhokar & House, 2007: 1040). Humane oriented leadership contributes to effective leadership in the two societies. The main predictor is humane orientation values e.g. concern sensitivity, friendship, tolerance and support for others. For other societies studied by GLOBE it contributes to effective leadership in varying degrees or has no impact. This is the case because characteristics other than the ones measured by GLOBE seem relevant to humane orientation (e.g. developing others), the leader involves subordinates and helps develop their self-esteem; being a good listener (i.e. leaders know and notice their subordinates needs). Secondly, a preference for depersonalized and institutionalized forms of leadership prevails in society, which makes certain characteristics of humane orientation leadership appear as obsolete to the responding managers (e.g. Russia, Germany) or even dysfunctional (e.g. France) (ibid, 1037).

Therefore, having considered the culture general and culture specific aspects, does culture influence leadership? The answer deduced from the discussion is “yes”. Societies and cultural clusters vary considerably on the CLT dimensions of humane, participative, autonomous and self protective leadership. They also show a variety of culture specific leadership concepts (Dorfman et al, 2004).

Aim and Objective 1: This study's first aim was to determine societal culture and leader behaviours of the host nation considered to be essential to expatriate manager's adjustment. Analysis of data provided nine cultural dimensions and six leader behaviours (CLTs). Although cultural practices, values and CLT indices were positively associated with adjustment, they were not significant. A possible explanation was given in chapter five. Cultural practices Power Distance, Performance and Humane Orientations correlated significantly with adjustment. This shows that culture as practised in these cultures makes a difference to expatriate managers' adjustment. In addition, cultural fit indices for practices had a positive significant association with expatriate behaviours as perceived by subordinate. Cultural fit indices for values were negatively associated with subordinate reactions. Interviews with expatriates offered knowledge on culture through experiences. We can conclude that our first objective was achieved, culture makes a difference in expatriate managers' adjustment and subordinate reactions in Kenya and Ethiopia.

7.1.2 Impact of Expatriates' Personality and Motive on Subordinate Reactions

Our findings have shown that culture influences expatriate leader behaviours and subordinates' commitment, motivation and satisfaction. Motivation is an important subordinate reaction that may affect commitment and job satisfaction. Work motivation in Africa and knowledge of it will assist expatriate managers and subordinates in dealing with motivational problems. In Africa, according to scholars such as Kiggundu (1988), there is a shortage of effective leadership. The autocratic leadership style expects subordinates to be submissive and obedient. This may stifle innovation and impede employee motivation. Kiggundu (1988) notes that many African organizations experience serious employee motivational problems. The sources of these problems are varied and not well understood because of lack of empirical research. In an empirical study of Malawian and Kenyan managers, Blunt and Jones (1986) found that managers assigned the highest importance to security needs. Jones et al (1996) found that their participants were more focused on developing strong relationships with their bosses than on striving to reach organizational performance. Despite the importance of these findings, more empirical investigations are needed to better understand the determinants of work motivation in Africa.

It was depicted that multicultural personality traits have a positive impact on subordinates commitment, job satisfaction and motivation. The assumption was partly supported by the

data. Subordinate satisfaction and motivation were related to cultural empathy, social initiative, and emotional stability and were significant. This is in line with results from Caliguiri et al (2001) who assert that expatriate managers who are emotionally less stable are interculturally less successful, indicated by less satisfaction, lower performance and poorer adjustment. It could be interpreted in another way, that is, managers who do not do well abroad become emotionally unstable. In addition to multicultural traits other characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, nationality and years of service may impact on adjustment and subordinate reactions. Quantitative findings indicated that age and nationality were associated with subordinate reactions and expatriate behaviours and age was associated with these behaviours. Expatriate managers commented on age, nationality, gender and marital status. Qualitative findings indicated that in these cultures (Kenya and Ethiopia) there is high respect for age and authority, and position commands respect. This was viewed in various ways by the expatriate managers; extracts from interviews in the qualitative chapter enforced the views.

Literature on African culture emphasizes respect for elders and authority (Beugre et al, 2001; Nzelibe, 1986, Dia, 1991; Saleh, 1985). Responses from expatriate managers working in Kenya and Ethiopia affirm this. There is also the importance of the extended family (Nzelibe, 1986:11-12). In a study on managers' motivation in Africa, Beugre (1988), notes that African managers are required to satisfy the social needs of their relatives. Behind every African worker, there is a family requesting attention, time, and mostly money. Obligation to relatives lends to nepotism and/or favouritism, for example, helping one's relative or tribesman for a job is considered normal. These are some of the problems immediate subordinates (who are managers of projects) face in INGOs. Loyalty to family members is key to social acceptance as is also the importance of the group. In collectivist cultures like Kenya and Ethiopia, one assures one's social integration by being loyal to one's group, family or friends. Therefore, these societies may require special personality traits to deal with the complex context.

In addition, the expatriate managers gave their major strengths and weaknesses with regard to being managers in a foreign country. The strengths included, experience in the country, being decisive, trained, sociable and ready to learn from others; while weaknesses included lack of training as a manager, being impatient, disorganized and not knowing the language. These could be included in the five multicultural personality traits; cultural empathy, open

mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility. The strengths and weaknesses reflect the personality of the expatriate manager.

Although several traits and skills have been associated with success of expatriates who operate in a different culture (Selmer, 2000, Aycan, 1997), most selection procedures are still focused upon strictly professional technical dimensions of the job and on earlier experience (Kealey, 1996, Selmer, 2002). This could be the cause of failure rates (Forster, 2001). The multicultural personality traits refer to behaviour in multicultural situations, making the relation between test behaviour and aspired job aspirant transparent to job applicants, thereby improving the acceptability of the instrument (Van der Zee et al, 1992). Although the traits did not correlate with adjustment, they did with subordinate reactions.

In conclusion, findings with respect to the relationship of the instruments are based upon samples of expatriate managers. Some of the MPQ dimensions may not be specifically related to multicultural success but be more generally linked to managerial success. Despite the fact that the fit between expatriates personality and the international position is useful we have to keep in mind that overseas success is also strongly determined by factors outside the expatriate manager (Aryee, 1997). This finding suggests the usefulness of interpreting results at the scale level. Further attempts may be aimed at developing independent and reliable scales for at least two aspects of intercultural interaction. In the context of HRM, of selection practice, this will provide more refined information about the strengths and weaknesses of candidates.

Aim 3 and 4; Objective 2 and 4: We identified expatriate manager's motives (power, affiliation, achievement and responsibility disposition) and leader behaviours rated by subordinates (Charismatic, fairness, support/reward and directive behaviours) and subordinates' reactions to them as explained in Chs. 4,5, and 6. Our second objective was to find out the impact of expatriate managers' motives and behaviours on immediate subordinates. Power motivation was positively associated with directive leader behaviour. Responsibility disposition was negatively associated with charismatic behaviour and positively with fair behaviour and subordinate commitment. Affiliation was negatively associated with subordinate reactions. Charismatic and supportive behaviours were positively associated with subordinate satisfaction and motivation. The motives were identified from interviews while expatriate managers' explanation of their experience revealed their interaction with subordinates.

We explored the five personality traits and found that subordinate satisfaction and motivation were related to cultural empathy, social initiative, and emotional stability and were significant. Quantitative findings indicated that age and nationality were associated with subordinate reactions and expatriate behaviours and age was associated with these behaviours. Qualitative findings indicated that in these cultures (Kenya and Ethiopia) there is high respect for age and authority, and position commands respect. A good leader is one who is flexible, sociable, considerate, open to learn and sympathetic.

7.1.3 Subordinate Reaction in Relation to Expatriates' Behaviours

Our findings indicated a positive relationship between expatriates' leader behaviours and subordinate motivation. The behaviours were expected to result in strong follower motivation and organizational commitment. Followers on their part were to express satisfaction and trust in the expatriate leader (Podsakoff, 1990, House et al, 1991, Kohn, Terborg and Steers, 1991, Smith 1992). The assumption was partly supported by the data. Both fair evaluation behaviour and charismatic leader behaviour had a positive association with motivation. Motivation is important because it may affect the subordinates organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In this study, supportive leader behaviour was associated with job satisfaction. When subordinates feel that they are supported in their efforts to implement the aims of the organizations, they will feel satisfied in their jobs (House et al, 2002). Both charismatic and directive behaviour had a significant relationship with job satisfaction. In NGOs, because of the requirements and intentions of donors, subordinates prefer a manager who will direct them on how best to implement the organization's aims (Hudson, 1999; Judge and Picollo, 2004). Charismatic leaders are said to motivate subordinates to accomplish objectives.

Jackson et al's (2001) study investigated the different managers from fifteen sub-Saharan countries. Compared with the overall mean score, Kenyan managers appeared to be motivated more by security of a steady job, opportunities to learn, being part of a team, and freedom to adapt to their own approach in their jobs. In their study, for Kenyan managers, work was not central in their lives. They had a higher internal locus of control and a lower external locus of control than the average of all managers across the fifteen countries studied. This finding has implications for immediate subordinates who are managers because their focus and motivating factor maybe internal rather than external.

Qualitative findings indicated that expatriate managers felt that most of their immediate subordinates were committed, motivated and satisfied with their work because of their professional experience and personalities. Commitment can be seen as keeping core values of the organization, being enthusiastic and trustworthy. To encourage commitment, the managers need to show that they trust their immediate subordinates, are tolerant and patient. Some expatriate managers emphasized that whatever they say is only an impression of what they see, it is difficult to know whether the subordinate is truly motivated or just trying to please.

An expatriate manager in Kenya expressed the following:

"In general, I would say, we got a moderate to good level of commitment. It depends on what is going on in a particular place. Motivation is high when they (subordinates) know that they are implementing something that they believe is of help to the people. They see it as valuable. Where you have a portfolio of projects given to the organization to implement, and do not seem to be relevant to the people around them, then they are not motivated. If donor contracts impose, then the motivation is low, but if driven by Kenyans contracts, it is different".

The problem of donors and sponsors demanding certain projects to be implemented was expressed by several expatriates. The sponsors are not in the field; they discuss what they want done while in offices in London or Washington, D.C. but it is the expatriate manager who has to convince subordinates that the project is needed by the people. Sometimes the subordinates disagree with the implementations and leave the organization but the expatriate managers are tied to the contracts of the donors and have to implement the organizational goals. It is usually a dilemma.

Subordinate satisfaction had a significant positive relationship with expatriate leader support/reward behaviour. Unlike governmental organization, NGO subordinates may need a leader who is supportive in his/her behaviour. Since jobs in the field require personal initiatives in implementing projects, support and sometimes reward is necessary for subordinates who may need it. In general, expatriate motives and behaviour have an impact on subordinate reactions.

Objective 2: The impact of expatriate managers' behaviour on immediate subordinates has been answered in the last section. We can conclude that findings indicated a positive relationship between expatriates' leader behaviours and subordinate motivation. Subordinate satisfaction had a significant positive relationship with expatriate leader support/reward behaviour. While interviews indicated that expatriate managers felt that most of their

immediate subordinates were committed, motivated and satisfied with their work because of their professional experience and personalities.'

Implications of Findings with respect to Expatriate Leader Behaviour and Motives

House et al, (1991) investigated the leader motives and behaviours that have substantial effects on the performance of organizations they manage. Their other study (House et al, 2002) dealt with important relationships between chief executives' motives and behaviours and subordinates' motivation and commitment to their organization. These empirical findings concern the contingent nature of leader motives as predictors of leader behaviour. The findings suggested that the relevance of a particular motive may well depend on the orientation of the collective being lead. This applies to the findings of this study. According to the theoretical argument, for achievement oriented collectives, the achievement motive is the most relevant leader motive. For the politically or combat oriented organization, the power motive is most relevant, but for the small, intimate, socially oriented collectives, the affiliative motive is the most relevant (House et al, 2002). For our two societies in this study, the affiliative motive is most relevant because they are in-group collectives.

Limitations

Although the findings have partly supported prior theory and evidence, there are some limitations of the present study that need to be noted. First, while the sample size is sufficiently large to permit tests of hypothesis and therefore, is not a threat to the internal validity of the study, yet a larger sample say 50 expatriate managers could have been better for external validity. There is limited prior relevant evidence with respect to effects of motives, other than the achievement motive, on leader behaviour and CMS, or how the effects of such motives are moderated by situational variables in organizational settings.

Second, although the interrater agreement ($r = .89$) with respect to the coding of affiliative motive was high, very few expatriate managers exhibited this motive. It may be that the interview questions did not capture this motive as they should. Therefore, the findings with respect to this motive may be unreliable and thus need to be further investigated. Thirdly, while in this study causal inferences are consistent with the findings, longitudinal research design that permits quasi-experimental investigation are clearly called for before organizational causal conclusion can be drawn.

Despite the many determinants of adjustment and subordinate reactions, training plays an important role in the expatriate adjustment success and positive subordinate reactions. Expatriate managers need to know about their cultures, the host nations and their own motives and behaviours in order to act appropriately in other cultures. The culture general and culture specific information in chapter two and the findings in chapter 5 and 6 on the impact of expatriate managers' motives, behaviour and personality on immediate subordinates and the NGO context in Kenya and Ethiopia would be relevant material for training. Cross cultural training is our subject of our next discussion.

7.1.4 Cross Cultural Training for Adjustment

Many researchers agree that cross cultural training is important for expatriates (Selmer, 2001, 2004; Forster, 1997; Kline, 1994; Peltonen, 1998), others emphasize that adjustment can be improved by it (Harrison, 1994; Zakaria, 2000:2). The reason for such training is that it would cover critical areas of host country subordinate and expatriate interaction which have potential for very positive or very negative outcomes depending on the skills and performance of the host country employee. The local unit has equal responsibility to become informed about the cultural and personal characteristics of the expatriate, as the expatriate has the responsibility to learn about the new culture and work setting (Vance and Ring, 1994).

In this study it was hoped that cross cultural training would enhance expatriate adjustment in Kenya and Ethiopia. The reason being that knowledge of expatriates' cultural background and characteristics would facilitate interpersonal attraction and increase likelihood of social support. This support enhances commitment (Guzzo, Noonan and Elron, 1994). Training should include a confrontation with the stereotypes and biases the workplace may have about the cultural/racial background and /or gender of the expatriate. This, it is hoped, will bring a more culturally tolerant and conscious environment that increases the effectiveness and commitment of the expatriate manager (Cox, 1994; Selmer, 2004).

The qualitative findings indicated that cross cultural training was needed and some understanding of why and how people act or behave the way they do is important in different cultural settings. One of the expatriates expressed it as follows:

"I did a cross cultural course for about six months before I picked up my first assignment in Kenya. It was at different levels. It was looking at my strengths and weaknesses. Then I did a lot of personal study and reading and reflection with others about my initial adjustment. That was very helpful, then I did some language study which was also very useful. Then as I worked over the years, I began to

draw friendship with Kenyans or people of that particular culture. As we grew in friendship and understanding, there was sharing of the underlying subtle understanding about the culture which ordinarily would not be shared”.

This extract indicates that apart from having received cross cultural training, the expatriate needs to interact with host nationals trying to make friendships that will make him/her be accepted in the society. Despite that, some mentioned that although cultural training enhanced adjustment, it is better to “learn from daily life, from mistakes and through experience and discovery appreciate the culture”. It is important to note the advice from an expatriate manager in Ethiopia;

“I was here 15 years ago, I was introduced to a course. I went home and when I returned four years ago, I had a year of Amharic and a cultural introductory course. That helped a lot. But what is more important is to learn from daily life, to make mistakes and to learn from the mistakes. What you get from books and what others tell you is useful, but afterwards, when you come to reality, sometimes things are different”.

That is why in cross cultural training literature it is emphasized that training should have components related to both general orientation and specific skill development (Harrison, 1994). Therefore, we can conclude that cross cultural training is necessary in the adjustment process because it helps the expatriate to be more culturally tolerant and conscious of the environment of the assignment (Lee, 2005; Forster, 2000). It will also enhance mutual understanding of the expatriates’ culture. Further literature confirms that it is imperative that employees who are to be expatriated are well informed regarding the challenges they might face in a foreign land (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000; Lee & Karakowsky, 2001; Caliguiri et al, 2001). The reason for this is that coping with a foreign culture both organizational and national needs well-planned preparation. As Zacharia (2000) points out, a well structured cross-cultural training will help the employees to prepare for coping with the changes in the working styles, beliefs and values they are expected to face. Uncertainty will be reduced through organizational support in terms of training. Some organizations try to avoid the cost of training, but the huge costs that an organization might face due to expatriate failure is of high concern. It is argued that preparing the employees for a foreign assignment is mutually beneficial to the organization and the employee (Caliguiri et al, 2001). For the expatriate manager, a well delivered training can help in managing with the new situations, while for the organization this helps in getting the best for the expatriate in terms of work output through maintaining the expatriate’s morale and motivation.

An alternative explanation by Selmer (2001:917) is that despite consistent praise for (pre-departure) cross cultural training (Black and Mendenhall, 1980; Brewster, 1995), others

have pointed out the methodological shortcomings in most of the supporting studies (Kealy & Protheroe, 1996) making their claims uncertain. A limitation in many studies is that the method used is usually self-reported data and could include effects of single method variance. This study used both questionnaires and interviews to reduce potential bias and shows that it is not experience itself that tends to drive adjustment, it is pre-departure expectations. Findings were consistent with the theory of met expectations which proposes that the more congruent an individual's expectations are with the individual's reality once on the job, the greater the individual's adjustment will be on the job (Porter & Steers; 1973; Wanous, 1980).

Caliguiri et al (2001:366) found that the less relevant training, the more expatriates assumed the global assignment was going to be easy, and vice versa. At the extreme, the expectations created either an accurate reality or a "nice surprise" when it was not as difficult as the expatriates thought it could be. Our findings have clear implications for the management of expatriates in international organizations. Consistent with the recommendations of Harris & Brewster (1999) we recommend that cross cultural training be tailored explicitly on the individual expatriate's situation in order to provide maximum relevance. It has to take into account the specific location of the assignment (e.g. urban or rural), family situation (e.g. spouse's career, children's age) and position within the organization (e.g. executive or specialist) when developing a training programme. Our second recommendation is for INGOs to offer more than just cross cultural training to improve the accuracy of the expatriates' pre-departure expectations. They could offer a visit to the host country prior to accepting the assignment, and an opportunity to discuss their move with former expatriates. This suggestion is more important for Ethiopia than Kenya since Ethiopia's socio-cultural situation is more complex with caution towards foreigners.

We suggest that an institute for cultural studies in both Kenya and Ethiopia be established to offer programmes for different durations from a month to a year for those wishing to work in these countries or for those who are already working there. It should not be a pre-requisite for working in the country since some expatriates strongly feel that training is not necessary, it is better to learn from daily life, from mistakes, and therefore, through experience discover and adjust. For them, it is better to wait and observe. Their success will depend partly on their motives, behaviour and personality as they work and interact with host nationals. When necessary, they can have on-assignment training.

Aim 4 and Objective 3: The fourth aim was to determine whether or not cross-cultural training received by expatriate managers is sufficient and necessary for adjustment to the new culture. Most expatriate managers received some kind of training and briefing although to some it was not sufficient. Discussion from interviews reveals that it is necessary to have basic to intense training depending on the time available to the expatriate manager. Most expatriate managers expressed the fact that it is important to learn for daily experience and from mistakes made.

Fifth Aim and Objective: Interview findings and discussion in Ch. 6 reveal that the expatriate managers' previous work experience is valuable knowledge that can enhance adjustment and proper management of NGOs. Assumptions are challenged and through openness to learning and even making mistakes, anxieties are lessened and adjustment process improved.

Link between Qualitative and Quantitative Findings

Interview data was coded for motives and personality traits (strengths and weaknesses) of the expatriate manager. The four motives were used in quantitative analysis to determine their effects on expatriate behaviour and subordinate reactions. The five multicultural personality traits were major independent variables in quantitative analysis while the strengths mentioned by expatriate managers as enhancing effective leadership could be regarded as sub-variables of the five multicultural personality traits. In addition, adjustment and subordinate reactions were dealt with in the two approaches and expatriate characteristics and their impact on adjustment were examined. An examination of both has enriched our understanding of adjustment and subordinate reactions.

A possible weakness of this study is the cross-sectional method employed. Although adjustment is considered to be a process over time (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Janssens, 1995; Ward et al, 1998) the method employed here only used measures of the average level of adjustment for the studied group of expatriate managers at a certain point in time. A potential more rich data source would have been to employ a longitudinal approach where adjustment patterns over time could have been identified and compared. Future research should try to replicate and extend the focus of this study. Other countries, preferably Sub-Saharan countries should be selected to test the validity of results.

Summary of Discussion on Specific Findings

This section of discussion on the main findings in relation culture and adjustment, subordinate reactions, expatriates' personality, motives and behaviours and cross cultural training has been covered. First, cultural fit, cultural practices, values and leadership were discussed in the context of adjustment. Although cultural fit indices were not associated with adjustment, cultural practices but not values were. Leadership is more effective when the fit between attributes of a leader and the followers' leadership concepts is high. Kenya and Ethiopia are particularly attuned to participative leadership which is associated with treating others as equals, being highly informal, and not being preoccupied with oneself.

Second, multicultural personality traits and other characteristics such as age, gender, marital status and years of service were considered as contributors to adaptability of expatriate managers to the Kenyan and Ethiopian cultures and their impact on subordinate reactions. Age, position and authority are respected in these cultures, and both female and male expatriate managers receive the same consideration because of their position as managers. Third, the depiction that the expatriate manager' motives and behaviour impact on subordinate reactions was partly supported. Affiliative motive in these collective societies was negatively related to subordinate commitment signifying that the relevance of a particular motive may well depend on the orientation of the collective being studied. Fourth, cross cultural training for adjustment was emphasized as a necessity because some understanding of why and how people act or behave the way they do is important in different cultural settings. A discussion on Ethiopian and Kenyan cultures and NGO context/environment adds to the contribution to knowledge for expatriate managers. From this discussion, contributions to knowledge can be identified with regard to societal culture, antecedents of expatriate adjustment and subordinate reactions. The next section specifies these contributions.

7.2 Contribution to Knowledge

7.2.1 Kenyan and Ethiopian Culture and NGO Context

Information on Kenyan and Ethiopian cultures and the NGO context gives the expatriate managers assigned to these societies background knowledge on what to expect. This kind of background allows them to face their anxieties realistically and to prepare themselves accordingly. What is expected of them as managers of NGOs and regulations to be followed

vary from country to country and an overview of these is vital for a smooth NGO management. Important too was the culture general information on cultural and leadership dimensions.

7.2.2 Societal Cultural Practices, Values and Leadership Dimensions (CLTs)

The first contribution is the societal cultural practices, values and CLTs of Kenya and Ethiopia. The nine cultural practices in the two societies differ significantly while the cultural values and leader preferences are the similar. Favourable and unfavourable cultural and leadership dimensions were identified. Cultures may have different practices but similar values (Javidan et al, 2002:23) because people may share common aspirations as to the way things should be in their societies in terms of identifying common values to start with.

Regarding the relationship between leadership and culture we identified the cultural dimensions that are associated with CLT dimensions and assessed the differential strength of association between each cultural dimension in relation to each CLT dimension. This information is essential for expatriates especially managers coming to Kenya and Ethiopia. This knowledge of culture and leadership can be used in cross cultural awareness training about these societies for both expatriates and subordinates.

7.2.3 Antecedents of Expatriate Managers' Adjustment

The second contribution concerns the antecedents of adjustment. This study examined the effects of cultural practices, values and leader preferences on adjustment. Cultural fit indices were not related to adjustment but some cultural practices: power distance, humane and performance orientations were related to it. It also examined the effects of expatriate managers' motives, behaviours and personality traits which had no significant relationship with adjustment. Although the results were not as expected, especially with multicultural personality traits, it raises the question: Which specific personality dimensions determine whether an employee will be multi-culturally effective? The multicultural personality traits may not be applicable in certain cultures, therefore, more research in African countries need to be conducted in order to validate them in these cultures. An explanation of expectations, reasons for accepting the assignment, successes and difficulties encountered and past experiences has contributed to the understanding of expatriate adjustment in Kenya and Ethiopia.

7.2.4 Subordinate Reactions

The third contribution is the findings of subordinate reactions towards expatriate leader motives and behaviour. Test models clearly showed that some motives inferred from interviews with expatriate managers, individually related to leader behaviour and subordinate organizational commitment, motivation and satisfaction (CMS). The findings also showed that leader behaviours reported by subordinates, i.e. charismatic, fair, supportive and directive leader behaviour were related to CMS. These findings are useful for future research if expatriates of other organizations other than INGOs can use them in investigating the impact of their motives and behaviours on immediate subordinates' reactions.

7.2.5 Contribution for Specific Theories

Fourthly, findings on the relationship between motives, leader behaviours and CMS have in most cases supported theory. We focus on power, achievement, responsibility and leader motive profiles.

Power Motivation Theory

Power motivation was positively associated with directive leadership behaviour as perceived by subordinates. High power oriented individuals, are strongly concerned about making an emotional impact on others, influencing the behaviour of others, and attaining reputation and status (Winter, 1991). It is argued that managers with high power motivation will exercise personalized leadership. This personalized leadership is based on personal dominance and authoritarian behaviour which is an aspect of directive leadership

Achievement Motivation Theory

In non governmental organizations, findings indicated that achievement motivation had positive effect on charismatic leader behaviour, subordinates commitment, motivation and a negative effect on supportive, fairness and directive leader behaviours and subordinates job satisfaction. Kenya and Ethiopia are not achievement oriented collectives and the findings were not significant indicating that the achievement motive was not relevant in this context.

Moral Responsibility Theory

Responsibility motive was negatively related to charismatic behaviour but positively related to fair, directive behaviour and subordinates' organizational commitment. These findings indicate that moral responsibility motivation and its interaction with power motivation is clearly an important disposition that deserves further investigation.

In conclusion, these contributions to the knowledge of Kenyan and Ethiopian Cultural practices, values and leader behaviour will be useful not only to expatriates but HR departments preparing them for foreign assignments. In addition, the relevant antecedents of adjustment, and the suitable leadership behaviours as rated by subordinates can also be used in training, coaching and briefings. What follows are implications of these contributions to International Human Resources Management, Cross Cultural Management and Managerial and Leadership research.

7.3 Implications of Contribution to Knowledge

7.3.1 International Human Resources Management

Empirical investigations in the area of Human Resources Management may have positive consequences for African managers and scholars and expatriate managers. The more we know about the African worker and his or her thought system, the more effective we shall be in managing him or her (Ahianzu, 1986:55; Jackson, 2004). For example, findings in this study on subordinate reactions and expatriate managers informs us that leader behaviours preferred in Kenya and Ethiopia should be considered by HR departments when selecting expatriates to these countries. Apart from selection procedures, these cultural practices, values and leader preferences can be used in training and coaching.

The question that bothers many researchers is that although research is done on management in Africa, there is no substantial change (Jackson, 2004). Research on various aspects of management should also have practical implications, for example, researchers should investigate the extent to which modern management techniques can be effectively applied to African cultures. The findings in this study have such practical implications for human resources and cross cultural management in particular, content for cross cultural training. Modern African scholars and practitioners in the management environment need to end what Munene (1991, 1995) described as, "an organizational environment characterized by

both isolation and dependency on the West". Isolation refers to Africa not being a major player in global business and management and dependent on the West refers to management systems and styles of leadership. It is the task of IHRM to apply findings of studies such as GLOBE (2004) to specific countries in training of expatriate managers and subordinates.

7.3.2 Cross Cultural Management

Some selected practical implications will be discussed in this section. Cultural diversity in international and domestic organizations is becoming the norm. Globalization and the growing need for managers who can work in different cultural environments is even greater (Dorfman et al, 2004). Cullen (2002) points out those organizations which proactively take part in the globalization process increase the number of their expatriate managerial staff throughout the world. Despite the talk of a global village, it is unlikely that the major societal cultures in the world will converge into an amalgam of a global cultural standard. This will be prevented by the preservation of cultural heritage and societal identity in many societies (Dorfman et al, 2002).

The cultural practices, values and behaviours that are associated with effective leadership in Kenya and Ethiopia and in a variety of societies from all major cultural regions of the world by GLOBE, provide a comprehensive set of information. This should be of interest not only to managers who want to develop their awareness of the critical aspects of effective leadership in different cultures, but also to those interested in developing a better understanding of the different cultural backgrounds which shape the way people feel, think, and act at work and in other contexts. In addition, expatriate managers need to gain a deeper understanding of the host nations' implicit and explicit theories about working together, leadership and their own respective concepts (Chhokar, Brodbeck and House, 2007:Ch.28). The expatriate should continuously and repeatedly assess, hypothesize, and act when entering and working in a new cultural environment. Whatever the case maybe things are not always what they appear to be and often seemingly clear similarities in expected leader behaviours many lead to the greatest misunderstanding and/or conflicts (Chhokar, Brodbeck and House, 2007; Ch.28). The combination of culture-general and culture specific reflections on Kenya and Ethiopia can inform senior management and international HR staff about the critical issue of how much prior training, coaching and actual experience in a particular host country is necessary to ensure effective leadership.

The comparative analysis of societal culture practices and values graphically displayed in Appendix V: A (A1 –A9) informs about the direction and the likelihood of cultural change in particular countries and regions. This can also help identify to what extent and in which respects a target country can be seen as a typical or a typical representative of the cultural region it is a member of in terms of cultural values and practices (A1-9) or in terms of leadership profiles (B1-6)⁶². The differences (represented by the arrows) show discrepancies between where a culture is and where it aspires to be. Some arrows point in the opposite direction (e.g. uncertainty avoidance in A4). This means that the societal cultural visions and potential for change in these clusters point towards the opposite ends of each dimension. While figures A1-9 compare all the cultural clusters of the GLOBE study, the sub-Saharan, Middle East comparison is highlighted by bold arrows.

Cultural distance is seen by GLOBE researchers as an opportunity to discover cultural practices elsewhere, which can be helpful to solve problems at home and vice versa. It has to be acknowledged though, that it is difficult to understand how foreign practices function without knowing more about the context within which they operate. The calculated cultural distance in this study is an opportunity to discover the cultural practices and values in the countries of the expatriates studied. With these implications in mind, we offer recommendations in the next section.

7.3.3 Expatriation: Implications for Managers

Long term management development and human resource planning are changing causing multinationals to change their approaches to expatriation (Mahieu, 2001). This has led to open resourcing, new criteria upon which to assess and develop people, a new performance management system, and a new approach to management learning.

Open resourcing: Means that the hiring line manager posts all vacancies, and people are free to apply if they are nearly at the end of their current assignment. Personal development centres are available for counselling and learning about career strengths and weaknesses, and some placement processes are still needed, for example to replace new recruits and returning expatriates or to deal with potential redundancy situations.

Management Learning: Instead of a fixed and formalized training programmes related to the job grade of individuals, learning is more openly accessed by those who can benefit. Local

⁶² The figures A1-9 and B1-6; are from Prof. Brodbeck's work in GLOBE II (Chhokar, Brodbeck and House, 2007): Ethiopia and Kenya are included from this study.

experiences are shared globally through the use of technology. Continuous culture general training as part of a management development process which encourages flexibility across cultures may be more effective than culture specific training on a one off basis. When expatriates are drawn from different countries, career expectations may be different as well as expectations of the way careers should be managed. The level of “intervention” required by the company may therefore be different across different cultures (Jackson, 2002).

7.4 Recommendations

What should foreign managers keep in mind when acting as leaders in the Kenyan or Ethiopian context? Having lived and worked in both cultures, the researcher spend considerable amount of time discussing with other expatriate managers the complexities in these cultures. An essential contribution is the advice given by expatriate managers in the two countries for new managers assigned to these countries. Critical situations emerge when members of different cultures interact because they hold different reference frames and approach situations with their own cultural specific perspective.

The findings of this study on cultural and leadership dimensions of Kenya and Ethiopia (see Tables 7.1; 7.2 and 7.3) can be used to identify dimensions needed by expatriates. The culture general results provide empirically well grounded information about any combination of target countries (House et al, 2002). Validated cross cultural measurement tools which include nine cultural practices, values and six global leadership dimensions can be used to develop the content of cross-cultural training exercises which can mimic situations of cultural overlap (see Table 7.1 and 7.2). Culture specific analyses of Kenya and Ethiopia can also be used when developing cross cultural training and coaching situations and how to tailor them to expatriate-subordinate relationships involving delegation, consultation and decision making (see Table 7.3).

Table 7.1: Interpretation of Cultural Practices
(Formulated from House et al, 2004: Chapters: 12-21) There is a significant difference between the two cultures

Dimension		Kenya	Ethiopia
Assertiveness		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High Score indicating that Kenyans tend to value assertive, dominant, and tough behaviour for everyone in society Value being explicit and to the point in communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low score indicating that Ethiopians tend to view assertiveness as socially unacceptable and value modesty and tenderness Value ambiguity and subtlety in language and communication
Institutional Collectivism		Both were high on In-group Collectivism:	
In-Group Collectivism		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This shows that members assume that they are highly interdependent with the organization and believe it important to make personal sacrifices to fulfil their organizational obligations Motivation is socially oriented, and is based on the need to fulfil duties and obligations and to contribute to the group. Compensation and promotion are based on what is equitable for the group and on considerations of seniority and personal needs 	
Future Orientation		<p>Close to medium score: There is a tendency to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Achieve economic success Have a propensity to save for the future Value the deferment of gratification, placing a higher priority on long term success 	<p>Low score: There is a tendency to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have lower levels of economic success Have a propensity to spend now, rather than to save for the future Value instant gratification and place higher priorities on immediate rewards
Gender Egalitarianism		<p>Medium scores for both countries yet these societies tend to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have almost an equal number of men and women in positions of power. Have an equal percentage of women and men participating in the labour force, Afford women the same status as men in society 	
Humane Orientation		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High score: others are important (i.e. family, friends, community, strangers). Need for belonging and affiliation motivate people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Medium score: Values of altruism, benevolence, kindness, love, and generosity have high priority. Members of society are responsible for promoting the well being of others People are urged to provide social support for each other
Performance Orientation		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High score: Values assertiveness, competitiveness and materialism Have performance appraisal systems that emphasize achieving results Value training and development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low score: Emphasize seniority and experience View feedback and appraisal as judgmental and discomforting Value societal and family relationships
Power Distance		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low score: Society has large middle class Power is seen as a source of corruption, coercion and dominance High upward social mobility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High score: Society differentiated into classes on several criteria Power is seen as providing social order, relational harmony, ad role stability Limited upward social mobility
Uncertainty Avoidance		<p>High score: tend to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have a tendency towards formalizing their interactions with others Rely on formalized policies and procedures, establishing and following rules, verifying communication in writing 	<p>Low score: tend to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have a tendency to be more informal in their interactions with others Rely on informal interactions and informal norms rather than formalized policies, procedures and rules

Table 7.2: Interpretation of Cultural Values

(Formulated from House et al, 2004: Chapters: 12-21) There is no difference in the cultural values of Kenyans and Ethiopians

Dimension	Kenya	Ethiopia
Assertiveness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Medium Score (3.89) indicating that Kenyans would prefer to be less assertive, dominant, and less tough behaviour for everyone in society They would prefer people to be less explicit and to the point in communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Medium score (3.45) indicating that Ethiopians would like to view assertiveness as moderately socially acceptable and would appreciate modesty and tenderness Would prefer less ambiguity and subtlety in language and communication
Institutional Collectivism	Both were high on In-Group Collectivism: 5.58 (Kenya) and 5.61 (Ethiopia)	
In-Group Collectivism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This shows that members wish to assume that they are highly interdependent with the organization and believe it important to make personal sacrifices to fulfil their organizational obligations Prefer motivation to be socially oriented, and is based on the need to fulfil duties and obligations and to contribute to the group. Compensation and promotion to be based on what is equitable for the group and on considerations of seniority and personal needs 	
Future Orientation	Both countries have high scores; 5.88 for Kenya and 6.02 for Ethiopia : These societies would wish to:	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have a propensity to save for the future Emphasize visionary leadership that is capable of seeing patterns in the face of chaos and uncertainty Have flexible and adaptable managers Have individuals who are intrinsically motivated 	
Gender Egalitarianism	Medium scores for both countries with 4.49 for Kenya and 4.38 for Ethiopia: They would wish to :	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have almost an equal number of men and women in positions of power. Have an equal percentage of women and men participating in the labour force, Afford women the same status as men in society and have similar levels of education females and males 	
Humane Orientation	Medium scores according to score banding: 5.47 for Kenya and 5.45 for Ethiopia: They wish to have:	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Values of altruism, benevolence, kindness, love, and generosity have high priority. Members of society are responsible for promoting the well being of others Members of society who are sensitive to all forms of racial discrimination 	
Performance Orientation	High score: (6.23) for Kenya and (6.37) for Ethiopia: They would like to see the following in their countries	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> People believing that anyone can succeed if he or she tries hard enough Performance appraisal systems that emphasize achieving results That training and development are valued That little importance is attached to age in promotional decisions. 	
Power Distance	Low score: (2.49) for Kenya and (2.45) for Ethiopia : They	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> See power as a source of corruption, coercion and dominance Would prefer to share information Need specialized technology adapted to each user See power as providing social order, relational harmony, ad role stability Like to have strong civil liberties and low public corruption 	
Uncertainty Avoidance	High score: (5.12) for Kenya and (5.08) for Ethiopia: They wish to:	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Be able to formalize their interactions with others Rely on formalized policies and procedures, establishing and following rules, verifying communication in writing Be orderly, keeping meticulous records, documenting conclusions drawn in meetings. 	

When cultures differ in their practices and values, expatriate managers' preparation and training to adjust to another culture is essential. If there are cultural differences, it is more difficult and takes more time, efforts are large and manifold because it implies that a higher amount of cognitive and behavioural restructuring and adjustment is generally necessary.

Table 7.3: Cultural Comparisons⁶³

KENYA	ETHIOPIA
These are some of the views expressed by expatriate managers who have worked in both countries	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Some felt better in Kenya because of work and people; they shared the same views. Although they were from different cultures, they felt part of a team. The team was job, task and goal oriented (corporate work). They felt at home. 2. Kenya is very Western, there is a feeling of talking the same language, and one is understood quickly. Performance is quicker and educational background is better 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In Ethiopia, it is difficult to have corporate oriented teams because people are used to the boss who dictates everything. The boss is assertive but silent 2. Ethiopia was not colonized and it is not Western in its orientation, just Ethiopian.
3. In both countries human relations are important and value is given to hospitality.	
4. People are free from the past, know Their history but look to the future and are inclined to international work.	4. More closed to external influences.
5. More open, liberal society, facilitating, therefore, a foreigner feels facilitated for business, investment, and other aspects.	<p>5. Relation to foreigners more difficult. In principle they are looked at with suspicion, a threat to the culture; maybe the presence of the Orthodox church created this mentality. "Changing our culture means changing our religion"</p> <p>The mentality is: "we are different" this is expressed; "Africans are Africans while Ethiopians are Ethiopians". When asked what part of Ethiopia do you come from? The answer is "Ethiopia". This is a uniqueness (as opposed to being different) that is not found in other parts of Africa. This gives a unique pride but also a liability because it is used as an excuse for not changing, not meeting standards. The current government has made significant process especially in infra-structure in the last five years.</p>

⁶³ These are comparisons made by expatriate managers who worked in both Kenya and Ethiopia

7.4.1 Managing Cross Cultural Issues

We recommend to expatriate managers the findings of this study, and how to use them to better manage the adjustment process across cultures.⁶⁴ This recommendation is in four parts, defining common goals in advance for adjustment process, mapping the cultural profiles, relationship manager, learning from the adjustment process.

1. Defining Common Goals in Advance

The first action is to define common goals and objectives in advance for the adjustment process for both the expatriate manager and for immediate subordinates. This is crucial because we know that cross culturally different parties define success differently and, as a result, expect different goals and attach different values to the organization (Caliguiri, 2000; Selmer, 1999; Forster, 2000). It is also important for the expatriate managers and subordinates to agree on job descriptions and expectations, these should be discussed and roles clarified. Most of the expatriate managers in the study emphasised this because of the misunderstandings of what was expected of them by the subordinates and vice versa. For example, the difficulties apparent in a) the acceptance and implementation of foreign leadership concept (in-group collectivism) and b) the use of hierarchy for organizational communication (immediate subordinates). Parties wrongly assume that their criteria for success and their goals are the same. Clarity is necessary on what managers and subordinates expect from working together and how they measure its success can go a long way in reducing misunderstanding and miscommunication.

2. Map the Cultural Profiles

Secondly, Expatriate managers' must understand their own and the host nations' cultural profiles. GLOBE provides the scientifically based tool for doing this (House et al, 2004). This study has provided cultural profiles for Kenya and Ethiopia. Various organizations, international non governmental organizations in particular can use this information to prepare a cultural map for each country involved by clearly identifying cultural differences and similarities. The profile will enable an understanding of how they are different or similar. Expatriate managers and subordinates need to discuss the possible ways in which the identified differences and similarities can impede or complicate adjustment especially to work and interaction. The differences that can

⁶⁴ Javidan et al, 2002, pg 21 to 22 give an extended discussion on how to manage cross cultural issues.

impede adjustment should be identified and possible ways to address them explored. This should be done early in the adjustment process. Cross cultural similarities should also be explored especially similar cultural values (i.e. on the Should Be responses). Cultures may have different practices but similar values (Javidan et al, 2002:23) because people may share common aspirations as to the way things should be in their societies in terms of identifying common values to start with.

Knowing that Kenya and Ethiopia belongs to the Sub Saharan, if cultural clusters are similar it is advisable to take time to explore and develop a common understanding of the ground rules of interacting and collaborating with each other on the basis of Humane Orientation. Although the enactment may differ in cultural clusters, an exploration of differences in enactment will help the trust in mutual respect needed to proceed with sufficient care to avoid or identify difficulties in time. Regarding performance orientation, time and effort is needed to articulate the common goals and criteria for success, i.e. what the expatriate manager and immediate subordinate mean by high performance. If both cultures are high on performance orientation, i.e. the degree to which a society encourages and rewards people for performance, then both should be willing to invest in common ground on performance criteria.

In conclusion, constructive discussions on cultural profiles should lead to a better adjustment process and lead to insights on how to communicate more effectively. This study recommends that expatriate managers should proactively engage immediate subordinates in a discussion of cultural impediments to building a strong transformational leadership team. For example, mutual respect is essential in both Kenya and Ethiopia and the expatriate manager needs to know this from the start. Finally, a good starting point is to inform top management and the HR group with the apparent value differences between modern Western type transformational leadership and traditional sub Saharan culture (autonomy, individual collaboration, directive leadership, and high power distance).

3. Relationship Manager

Thirdly, we recommend that international non governmental organizations assign a relationship manager in cross cultural adjustment to assist in communication between the expatriate manager and their immediate subordinates (Javidan et al, 2002). They need to have open lines of

communication and create a common space where the parties feel comfortable and confident to work together to nurture and develop mutual relationship.

In some societies, there is a reluctance to interact freely with foreigners and therefore, a person to encourage communication and closer leader-subordinate relationship is necessary. Common space is developed through an understanding of common cultural traits and goals of the organization, but also requires constant contact, in the form of distant and face to face, formal and social exchanges to develop the requisite trust. This is especially so in the case of a high in-group culture like Kenya and Ethiopia, the challenge for the expatriate manager is to find ways that can help him/her become part of the host nation's in-group. Social and informal gatherings tend to be particularly important in such settings.

4. Learn from Adjustment Process

It was mentioned by all the expatriate managers who participated in this study that it is important to learn from the process of adjustment. We recommend that the expatriate manager involved in the adjustment process and the organization should to see it as a learning opportunity. The success of international organizations is increasingly dependent on productive relationships with people in other culturally different settings. Adjustment process could be viewed as a stream of learning opportunities. Organizations should spent time and money on this cross cultural learning for both the expatriate manager and immediate subordinates (who are usually local managers).

In conclusion, it seems organizations might facilitate international transfers and adjustments by providing overlap time between the returning expatriate manager and the new replacement as well as providing clear job descriptions in order to reduce misunderstanding and unnecessary difficulties. This was expressed by some expatriate managers in Ethiopia who arrived in the country when their predecessors had already left. A limitation in this study was that expatriate managers rated themselves on adjustment. Future research might test subordinates' rating on expatriate adjustment and compare them. The expatriates should have been in the country for at least one year because respondents indicated that the low point of their adjustment occurred approximately six months after their arrival. What follows is a summary of advice given by expatriates in both countries to new expatriates assigned there.

7.4.2 Advice to New Expatriates⁶⁵

"Keep your eyes and ears open, mouth shut; listen, listen and listen again"

There are many aspects to be considered in advising or recommending a new expatriate coming to Kenya or Ethiopia. The participating expatriate managers gave similar advice for both countries because there are general issues that need the attention of a new comer.

1. It is important to consider whether you are assigned to a rural or urban project. Most country headquarters are in the major cities like Nairobi and Addis Ababa and various projects are in the rural areas where there is greater need. Most non governmental organizations target development area or those that are poor. In the cities, there are facilities that can be found in any city in the developed world while the rural areas lack a lot e.g. running water, electricity, telephones, good roads, shops etc. You need to be psychologically prepared for this.
2. As a new comer you need to take it easy, to relax at the start, to give yourself some time. This may not be welcomed by many because they are eager to work, but the time used for observation and reflection will later help you to focus and take the work pace of the country. Initially, there is a feeling of being lost, of loneliness, but this will pass, give it a bit of time. In the end you will be glad you came.
3. Therefore, take time to pose, observe and learn. Reflect on everyday experience, observe reactions, and understand ways of proceeding, there is wisdom in the ways things are done. Ask and inquire if in doubt. Do not impose or change things in the first few months, otherwise, you will meet opposition. To adjust to a new culture takes time and culture can never be learnt completely. Sometimes, simply listen, look, and leave it at that.
4. Develop a sense of yourself, know your strengths and weaknesses and be open about both. There is need for self awareness, conscious of happenings, and be able to reach out, to be understood. You should not sacrifice principles for whatever reason. For example, be honest and accountable. Also be ready to be resented especially when you bring change that is not welcomed. Take time to listen to everyone, seek advice from the wise, recognise their experience and they will be willing to assist.
5. Do not assume that you are coming to help the Africans, that kind of approach is not only patronizing but disrespectful and actually gets you nowhere. You are coming here to do a job. You have certain skills, it maybe in administration or technical skills, bring that skill and use it knowing that other people have such skills and that you have no rights any higher than the citizens. In fact, you are not a citizen and have no political rights within the country.
6. Do your job and be respectful and remember your place which is: "I am a foreigner in this country and subject to the political will of the Kenyan or Ethiopian people"
7. With that attitude, your work will be easy, but if you come with the attitude of

⁶⁵ This is a summary of the advice given by Expatriate managers in Ethiopia and Kenya for the new managers commencing assignment in these countries and the researchers reflections.

- superiority and that every expatriate should have a membership to the club in their contract because we are superior, then you are not going to enjoy Kenya/Ethiopia and the people of these countries.
8. Africans are relational, therefore, take time to know your staff, get involved in their lives when they let you (family visits, weddings, anniversary celebrations, funerals etc). Believe in and invest in the local people rather than spending much time with fellow expatriates. Ethiopians and Kenyans are hospitable, friendly and genuine (especially in rural areas), take the opportunity when offered. Interact with people, show interest, dialogue with them, be transparent and share a bit of yourself with them. Here, knowing the language would be an added bonus because most nationals especially in Ethiopia would prefer to converse in Amharic rather than English.
There maybe limitations to how far you can socialize in order to be clear of your responsibilities and boundaries as a manager.
 9. Learn about the culture and country before coming, anticipate what they do everyday. Read what you can, and be genuinely interested in the pre departure courses and briefing so that you will look forward to working with these amazing people. On your arrival, be humble, learn from them. Be realistic about expectations, you can never be fully prepared. Allow the country and people to share with you its best and worst parts. Ethiopia differs from any other country in Africa; it has a strong culture very much rooted; therefore, as already mentioned, observe and learn before you act. Cultural aspects are always sensitive, be slow to criticize, understand the environment and initiate change respectfully.
 10. Finally, take time to land, see people, travel the country and have the feeling that you want to be part of this country and people for the next two, three or more years you will be with them. Be patient, be respectful!

7.5 Management Practice in Sub-Saharan Africa

The cultural patterns may affect modern economic, political and legal systems. They have to be considered in the analysis of management practice in Africa. Culture in Africa plays an important role in shaping management practices. Therefore, understanding of the culture of a people will help the articulation and development of effective management practices for that particular culture (Nyambegera, et al, 2000). Certain cultural tenets, which are discussed subsequently, make these features different in African than in Western cultures.

In Ethiopia and other countries in Africa, it has been suggested that a model of HRM which focuses on commitment and loyalty can address the problem of brain drain (Mekonen and Mamman, 2003). According to Shinn (2002) this calls for organizational changes that value, reward, develop and challenge skilled Ethiopians. To ensure commitment and loyalty, from the Ethiopian perspective, the Japanese model of HRM is considered relevant. Some form of

paternalism is necessary, for example, providing interest free loans or decent housing and transport will ensure that the commitment and loyalty of employees are gained. In fact, evidence indicates that wages and salaries are not the main determinant of employee retention, the extra benefits are what matters. Most international NGO apply this model in addition to good salaries (Dessaiegn, 2002). Most are able to retain their Ethiopian professionals who aspire for a better and higher standard of living, provision of fringe benefits such as housing, car loans, and decent working conditions.

7.5.1 Attempts towards Models and Solutions

One recent effort to formulate a paradigm of managing in Africa is the concept of “ubuntu” – the notion that “I exist because of others” (Mbigi and Maree, 1995). Ubuntu is said to signify an indigenous African philosophy of management which captures that complex social relations between people and the idea of caring for others as though they were members of one’s own family. Is this approach viable with the ethnicity problem? Many observers tend to make sweeping generalizations about the “African management context” while ignoring the very unique features exemplified in each country. The diversity of Africa cuts across many dimensions: ethnicity, with some 2000 different ethno-cultural communities; historically, with effects going back to whether the country is a former colony of Britain, France, or Portugal for example; politically, with (military) dictatorships alongside democracies: economically, with several high-income countries amidst a poverty-stricken majority, and various shades of socialism/capitalism (Nzelibe, 1986; Ngambi, 2004). It is also erroneous to assume homogeneity within specific countries since many African countries are a loose collection of ethno-cultural communities struggling to establish an identity as a nation-state (Kamoche et al, 2004).

Kamoche (2002) has suggested a model for Africa. He argues that the unquestioning use of “Western” models of management in Africa merely stifles the incentive to examine critically the real needs of organizations on the continent. The question of relevance has been recurring in literature (Jaeger and Kanungo, 1990; Kamoche, 1993). In this regard, the relevance of western concepts has been seen vis a vis the African culture. It should be pointed out that in spite of the relative uniformity in the essence of “African thought system”, “African Culture” is in reality a melange of about 2000 “sub-cultures”/linguistic groups that fall into Bantu, Hamitic, Nilotic, Arabic, Asian European and other such categories. Kenya has 42 and Ethiopia has 70 (CIA Fact book, 2004). Abudu (1986) had offered a critique and argued that the effects of colonialism and

ill-conceived industrialization in Nigeria (and much of Africa for that matter) produced a culture which is neither local nor foreign, but a “hybrid monstrosity”. This implies that efforts to conceptualize an African “context”, “culture” or “society” should be taken with caution. Therefore, it is important to pay attention to the challenges at all levels and also consider the urban and rural contexts.

It is impossible to do justice to any African country in a theses or even a book. We only aim the reader with as rich flavour as possible within the space constraints of the diversity of the challenges, opportunities, and complexities that lie beneath the rather amorphous landscape of the African management context. Given this HR situation in Africa, investors and expatriate managers in Kenya and Ethiopia are likely to make inappropriate decisions and to ignore the unique features of the African context as they import their thinking and practices.

7.5.2 Leadership and Management on National Culture

Using national culture: There is a footnote indicating “West Africa” is a region of a continent and not a country, leaving one sceptic of Hofstede’s awareness of the error. This error reflects a general tendency in the literature on national cultures (Nkomo, 2006). While authors argue for particularism and uniqueness of national cultures, often-broad generalizations prevail. This is particularly evident in reference to Africa. The cultural identity of a single country or a few countries is taken to represent the “whole”. The recent seminal GLOBE study of 62 countries also reflects this tendency, not only in regard to Africa but generally. There is reference to the culture of “Sub-Saharan Africa” when only five African countries out of more than fifty are included in the study (House et al, 2004; Javidan et al, 2005). According to this body of knowledge, African culture has a high power distance (the degree of equality among people which the population of a country considers normal); values collectivism, avoids uncertainty, and has a strong humane orientation to name a few of the cultural dimensions. A major problem here is the homogeneity of Africa overlooking the diversity of cultures within countries and across the continent.

7.6 Limitations and Topics for Future Research

Every study has limitations; it could be in the methodology, theory or design. In this study the first limitation was the sample size of expatriate managers. Although 32 participated only

responses from 28 could be used. Many who had agreed to participate gave excuses for not being able to do so at the last minute. A larger sample, say over 35, may have yielded more significant quantitative results. Both middle managers for societal culture and expatriates' immediate subordinates were over 250 and their results were satisfactory. Despite the limitation of the small sample of expatriate managers, the detailed interviews provided sufficient information on expatriate adjustment and their motives/experiences. Only leadership in organizations was studied, and only middle managers were sampled for societal culture. This does not constitute a fully representative sample though it does help considerably in comparisons across countries. On the basis of this data, construct validity on the country level of analysis was established because all GLOBE scales were triangulated with a whole variety of external data sources. These results increase our confidence in GLOBE scales to provide us with a good basis to start with (House et al, 2004).

The second limitation was the scales for expatriate adjustment. Black's (1988) eleven items were used, but we found that the facets of adjustment were highly correlated. In future new scales should be formulated to cover all facets of adjustment in detail. There maybe specific items in a culture that hinder adjustment, for example, the host nation members being slow to make friends with foreigners, or being assigned to a rural rather than urban area. A pilot study could indicate the various items by including both the expatriate managers and their subordinates in the item development process.

Thirdly, the interview questions used did not reflect the affiliation motivation as it did with power, achievement and responsibility motivations. The reason may be that these expatriate managers have a contract of two to three years and do not want to have close ties with the host nationals. Depending on the culture they come from, they may be interested in work performance more than close relationships with the people. A review of the interview questions is necessary before future research on expatriate motives in these countries. The current questions were meant for CEOs but were adapted for expatriates.

This study raises a number of issues and questions for future research as regards culture and leadership. A number of studies are emerging from the GLOBE study but the concentration is on the USA, Europe and Asia. African and other scholars need to include Africa in research on culture and leadership (Jackson, 2004, as an example) especially the effects of culture specific .

issues in management. For example, in countries like Kenya and Ethiopia more than 70% of the population lives in rural areas and these areas are governed by specific cultures. Amhara people in Ethiopia who ruled for some years will view authority differently from the Tigrins who felt they were oppressed. Therefore, for future research on culture and leadership, culture specific situations need to be addressed in these countries. Some of the issues and questions reflected on by the researcher and presented by various researchers on culture and leadership are as follows:

1. An investigation on how particular cultural backgrounds influence leadership behaviour and effectiveness within and across cultural boundaries. A question from this would be: If the CLT profiles of the hosting cultures are not enacted by the leader or expatriate, will the leader be less accepted, less effective?
2. Another question related to leader behaviour for future research was asked by House, Wright and Aditya (2000): Does leader behaviour that deviates slightly from dominant cultural practices and/or values encourage innovation and performance improvement; as such behaviours are non-traditional and unexpected?
3. With increasing globalization, is it likely that leadership prototypes derive from experiences made in more than one culture? Would cross-cultural experience be reflected in "blended" leadership prototypes?⁶⁶
4. *Culture and leadership*: What specific behaviours comprise high integrity leadership, and do they have the same function and impact across cultures?
5. *Measuring Cultures*: How do different cultural dimensions react? What is the relative importance of each dimension in understanding each culture? Which cultural dimension, if any, should be attended to most in different cultures? What is the impact of different bundles of cultural dimensions? And which combination of cultural dimensions should be studied in each culture? (House et al., 2004: p.726)
6. *Cross Cultural Contact*: An important reason for understanding cultures is the increasing rate of contact among cultures. Contact as consumers, competitors, partners, suppliers and helpers. Therefore, there is an academic and practical need to understand what happens when cultures connect.

In addition, the question of sub-culture within cultures has been raised. The question of whether the GLOBE sample represents the societies well enough has been raised by cross cultural

⁶⁶ Brodbeck, Chhokar and House, 2007: Ch. 30

scholars (e.g. Triandis, 2004). What is meant is that subcultures in societies especially of large heterogeneous countries (Kenya and Ethiopia included) may not be adequately represented by GLOBE because samples were not systematically drawn to cover different subcultures. Future research needs to address this issue especially in countries in Africa where tribal value systems differ greatly. These and other research projects could help to estimate the accuracy of cross cultural data more generally, e.g. with respect to the question of whether and how quickly the data become outdated or obsolete.

7.7 Conclusions

This study was anchored by the GLOBE Study on culture and leadership, and Black's study on expatriate adjustment. The theoretical framework was an integration of a number of important theoretical perspectives which include: the implicit leadership theory expanded to the cultural level; the strategic contingency theory; McClelland's achievement theory of human motivation, met expectations theory and Hofstede's culture theory (House et al, 2004:723). Hofstede's theory was extended by including new dimensions. This extension by the GLOBE Study resulted in nine dimensions of organizational culture which were used for Kenya and Ethiopia. Culture was conceptualized and measured in terms of practices and values.

The main features of the methodology used included instruments based on the existing literature. Methods of identifying and controlling for response bias to test validity of scales were used and multi-level confirmatory factor analysis was used to confirm the internal consistency and cross-cultural viability of the culture and leadership scales. Finally, validation of all GLOBE scales indicates that the findings reflect the societies in which middle managers work rather than the cultures of middle managers alone.

In this research, we have discussed the issues related to expatriate managers' adjustment and its impact on subordinates. The essence of the study was that while expatriate managers may face difficulties in adjustment considering their motives and behaviours in the host country, knowledge of their own culture and the host country is a starting point to a successful adjustment. Knowledge of cultural differences and similarities if managed effectively, through open discussion can be a source of synergy and a stimulus for mutual learning and adjustment.

Therefore, the message to the expatriate managers is to take a proactive and systematic approach to dealing with cultural differences. They need to be aware of how the host cultures are different and be mindful of their implications. As explained in the recommendations, both expatriate managers and subordinates need to define their common goals in the adjustment process and their success criterion, need to understand and discuss their potential cultural challenges, to ensure they have proper management of the relationship, and to treat every case of adjustment as a learning opportunity to improve their chances next time.

We also presented the findings of this study as a helpful tool for expatriate managers to be more prepared for the challenges and issues they will be facing. The nine cultural dimensions and its analyses of cultural values and practices are the state of the art for many years to come (Javidan et al 2002) and can help expatriate managers and International Human Resources departments develop a global and culturally sensitive mindset. In addition, we used the ten cultural clusters (House et al, 2004) to structure the presentation of host countries in this study. This is helpful for the reader who wants to compare countries from the same and different cultural regions e.g. in order to identify subtle differences between countries from different cultural clusters. This helps to understand cultural similarities and differences between countries and cultural regions better and to become aware of the impact the sometimes subtle differences in societal culture and leadership concepts can have on the effectiveness of cross cultural encounters at work.

This study provides a rigorous tool to help expatriate managers understand the similarities and differences among the various cultures in comparison to Kenya and Ethiopia, to take a proactive and constructive approach to resolving cross cultural issues. It also provides valuable assistance in identifying the culturally appropriate content for cross cultural training to be used in effectively managing the adjustment process, motives, behaviours and subordinate reactions. Furthermore, the study enhances our understanding of the impact of components such as personality, motives and behaviour as perceived by subordinates on expatriate adjustment and subordinate reactions and points to the multidimensional aspect of adjustment. It is our hope that this study will serve to stimulate future research on the linkages between personality traits, motives, behaviours and subordinate reactions as well as instigate investigations into additional methodologies for adequately measuring adjustment.

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